

AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION OF

Eric C. Brown for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Chemistry presented on October 31, 2002. Title: Rhenium-Catalyzed Oxygen-Atom Transfer Reactions: Mechanism and Applications.

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Abstract Approved: _____,

Kevin P. Gable

In situ reduction of hydrido-*tris*-(3,5-dimethylpyrazolyl)borato(trioxo) rhenium(V) with triphenylphosphine or triethylphosphite leads to a reactive rhenium(V) species that catalytically deoxygenates epoxides at 75-105°C. The reaction is stereospecific, except for *trans*- and *cis*-butene oxide which formed minor amounts of the opposite isomer. A variety of different functional groups were tolerated and even epoxides that reacted slowly could be pushed to greater than 95 % conversion given extended time and/or higher temperature. The absence of clustering processes shows how the choice of ligand can have a major influence on the design of the catalytic cycle.

The rhenium(V) species formed from reduction of Tp'ReO_3 was identified as Tp'Re(O)(OH)_2 . Tp'Re(O)(OH)_2 reacted with ethanol and HCl to form ethoxide and hydroxo chloride complexes, respectively. In addition, Tp'Re(O)(OH)_2 was an excellent catalytic and stoichiometric reagent for the deoxygenation of epoxides

and sulfoxides. Loss of water from Tp'Re(O)(OH)_2 to form the catalytically active species Tp'ReO_2 was shown to be a necessary preequilibrium process.

The kinetic behavior of the catalytic system is complex. First-order behavior in $[\text{Re}]_{\text{T}}$, zero-order dependence in $[\text{PPh}_3]$ and saturation behavior for epoxide were observed. The reversible formation of a coordinated epoxide complex was proposed to explain the saturation behavior. The epoxide complex was shown experimentally and computationally to engage in two separate reactions: ring expansion to form a *syn*-diolate complex, and direct fragmentation to alkene and trioxide. A steady-state concentration of diolate is eventually reached explaining a “burst” of alkene production prior to generation of a pseudo-zero-order catalytic system. The diolate formed is the *syn*-isomer, which is the kinetically formed product. Direct epoxide fragmentation is the primary source of alkene. This process was determined to be four times faster than ring expansion for *cis*-stilbene oxide.

The synthesis and characterization of a tethered-epoxide Cp^* rhenium trioxide complex has been achieved. Reduction of this complex leads to an unsaturated rhenium(V) species that is immediately complexed by the tethered epoxide. Experimental data and molecular mechanics modeling support intramolecular coordination of the epoxide to the rhenium center. These results confirm that the coordinate epoxide is a viable intermediate in rhenium-catalyzed epoxide deoxygenations.

Rhenium-Catalyzed Oxygen-Atom Transfer Reactions: Mechanism and
Applications

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This is dedicated to my wife, Amy Pence Brown and my parents, Garry and Urania Brown.

Rhenium-Catalyzed Oxygen-Atom Transfer Reactions: Mechanism and Applications

Chapter 1: Background and Significance

1.1 Metal-Mediated Oxygen-Atom Transfer Reactions

The transfer of oxygen atoms between a metal center and substrate is a reaction that holds both academic and industrial importance. Transition metal complexes play an essential role in the stoichiometric and catalytic oxidation of organic compounds as well as roles in biological processes. Examples of metal-mediated O-atom transfer reactions include epoxidation and *cis*-dihydroxylation of olefins. Furthermore, evidence exists to support the involvement of O-atom transfer reactions in biological systems such as cytochrome P-450¹ and molybdenum hydroxylase enzymes².

Numerous obstacles exist for the oxidation of organic compounds. These include the kinetic inertness of various chemical oxidants, the thermodynamic preference for overoxidation, and the challenge to control chemoselectivity, stereoselectivity, and regioselectivity. Metal complexes offer a variety of solutions to these challenges. First, they can overcome the kinetic obstacle by providing alternative pathways with lower Gibbs free energies of activation. For example, reactions of organic compounds with dioxygen in its ground state (triplet) are spin

forbidden (Woodward-Hoffman rules), but this barrier may be overcome by forming oxo or peroxo metal complexes. Second, modification of the properties of the metal complex can have an effect on selectivity. Simple changes in steric bulk can influence regiochemistry, changes in electronic structure can influence chemoselectivity and a chiral structure can influence stereochemistry.

Despite the interest in O-atom transfer reactions, the mechanistic understanding of metal-catalyzed oxidations is often limited. A complex combination of mechanisms exists in many cases, making structural identification of intermediates and determination of rate constants associated with individual reaction steps difficult to determine. Unfortunately, the rational design of new reagents or enantioselective versions of existing reagents requires an adequate understanding of mechanism.

Catalytic O-atom transfer reactions can be described by equations (1) and (2). The oxygen atom donor (**XO**), such as O₂, H₂O₂, PhIO, Me₂SO, epoxides or amine *N*-oxides, donates an oxygen atom to the transition metal complex, **M**, forming either an oxo- or peroxometal complex, **MO**. The oxo- or peroxometal complex can either transfer the newly acquired oxygen atom back to **X** or it can transfer the oxygen atom to the oxygen atom acceptor **Y**. The most common oxygen atom acceptors are olefins, sulfides, tertiary phosphines and phosphites.



1.2 Electronic Structure of Metal Terminal Oxo Complexes

Two general types of metal complexes are involved in O-atom transfer reactions: (i) peroxide/peroxo complexes and (ii) terminal oxo complexes. Group IV and V metals form active epoxidation reagents as peroxo/peroxide transition metal complexes. Conversely, group VI-VIII metals more often form oxo metal complexes with multiple bonds. As a general rule, the formation of terminal oxo metal complexes seems to be most favorable along a diagonal from vanadium to osmium.³

High oxidation state metal oxo compounds, such as OsO_4 ⁴, SeO_2 ⁵, RuO_4 ⁶ and MnO_2 ⁷, catalyze a variety of O-atom transfer reactions. Their ability to selectively oxidize organic compounds under mild conditions has made them some of the more commonly used reagents in organic synthesis. The nature of the oxo metal bond can best be described by examining the possible resonance structures and valence bond diagrams (Figure 1). Oxo metal compounds can exist with bond orders ranging from three to as low as one. Overall, the terminal oxo metal bond consists of a σ bond along with one or two π bonds. If the oxo metal bond is designated as lying along the z -axis, d_{π} - p_{π} overlap occurs between the d_{xz} and p_x orbitals and/or the d_{yz} and p_y orbitals. The metal must be an excellent π -acceptor and be in a high oxidation state ($\geq 4+$) with no more than four d electrons. Low d electron counts are required since configurations d^{0-4} contain vacant or half-filled d

orbitals available for bonding with the filled ligand p orbitals. As a result, no stable $M=O$ groups are known for transition metals right of the iron triad.

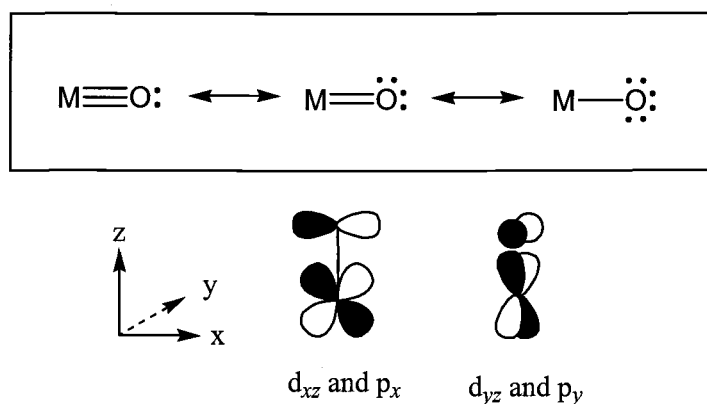


Figure 1.1 Resonance structures and valence bond diagrams.

The partial molecular orbital diagram for an octahedral complex with one oxo metal bond is shown in Figure 1.2.³ The diagram illustrates the effect of π -bonding on the relative energies of orbitals found in the t_{2g} set. As a result of the d_z^2 and $d_{x^2-y^2}$ orbitals pointing directly at the ligands, the five metal d orbitals are split into an e_g set (d_z^2 , $d_{x^2-y^2}$) and t_{2g} set (d_{xz} , d_{yz} , d_{xy}). The doubly degenerate e_g set consists of σ^* character, while the triply degenerate t_{2g} set is considered primarily nonbonding. The addition of an oxo group lowers the symmetry to C_{4v} and the degeneracies among the e_g and t_{2g} sets are lost. The d_{xz} and d_{yz} orbitals, which possess the correct symmetry to interact with the p_x and p_y orbitals on oxygen, further split the t_{2g} set into a nonbonding orbital and a doubly degenerate π^* orbital.

In addition, the higher electronegativity of oxygen places the π orbitals of the oxo ligand at lower energy than the metal d orbitals.

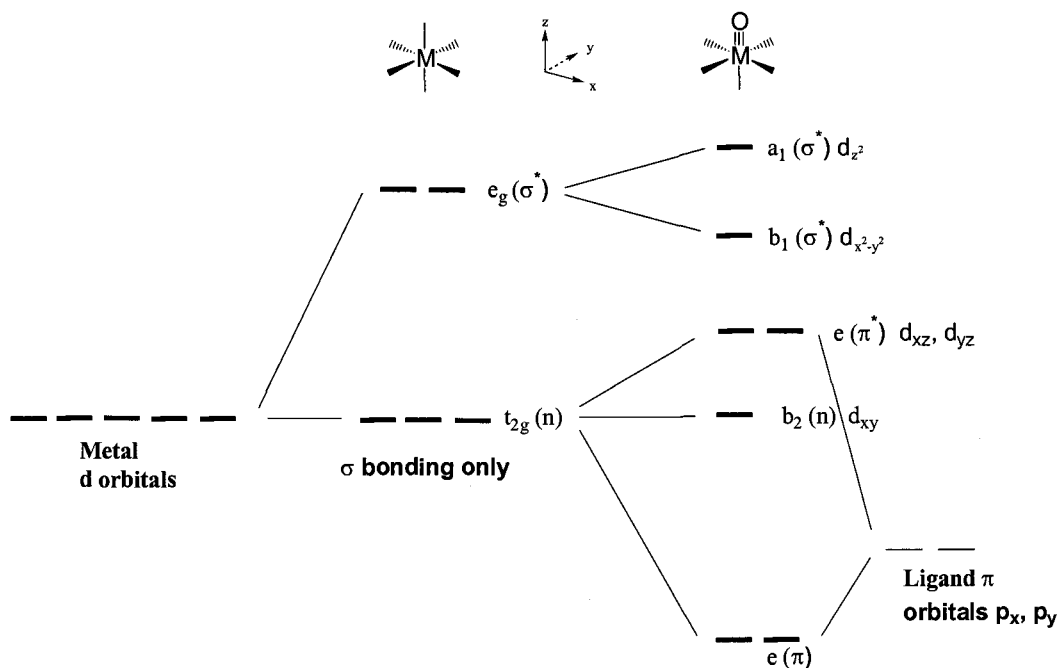


Figure 1.2 Partial molecular orbital diagram of octahedral complex.

The consequences of the bonding model on reactivity can be described by frontier molecular orbital theory (Figure 1.3). Typically for metal oxides the LUMO is localized on the metal, which is subject to attack and coordination by nucleophiles (pathway A).⁸ This implies polarization of the oxo group towards oxygen as indicated by the dipolar resonance form on the left. However, the oxo ligand is expected to become more electrophilic as the metal oxo π^* orbital drops in

energy and attains more oxygen character.⁹ An electrophilic oxo group is necessary to explain migrations of σ -bonded aryl groups from rhenium to oxygen in $[(\text{HBpz}_3)\text{ReO}_2\text{Ph}]\text{OTf}$.⁹ In this case, the dipolar resonance form on the right is a more adequate representation and is commonly referred to as an “oxene”. A concerted oxene or oxenoid mechanism has been invoked to explain alkane hydroxylation by cytochrome P-450¹⁰ and epoxidations mediated by oxo metal complexes¹¹. The oxene insertion involves electrophilic attack, similar to a carbene, on the carbon-hydrogen bond of the alkane or carbon-carbon π -bond of the alkene.

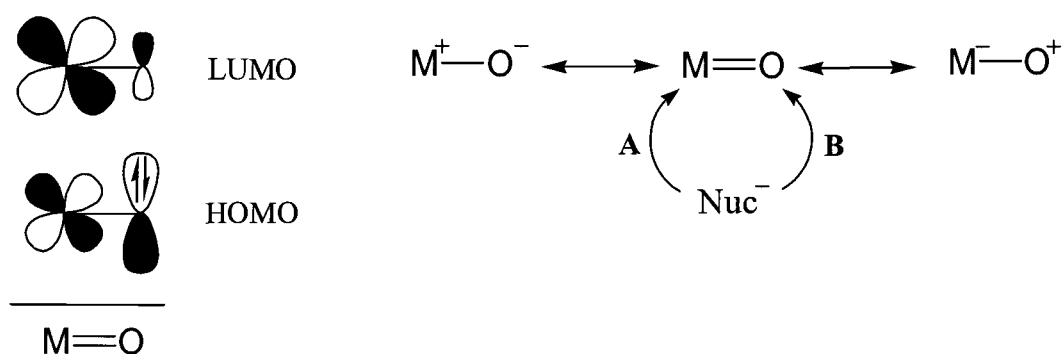


Figure 1.3 Dipolar resonance structures and molecular orbitals.

1.3 C-O Bond Forming Reactions Mediated By Oxo Metal Complexes

The transition metal, its oxidation state and ligand environment all have a major effect upon oxygen atom transfer reactivity. Consequently, countless

possibilities exist for the rational design of more efficient and selective oxidizing agents. Two exceptional examples of how ligand design led to efficient catalysis are Sharpless asymmetric *cis*-dihydroxylation (AD)¹² and Jacobsen-Katsuki asymmetric epoxidation¹³ of olefins. Both processes use high oxidation state oxo metal complexes to catalyze the reaction and chiral ligands to induce asymmetry in the product. These reactions are appealing since they allow the formation of two chiral carbons simultaneously from an achiral alkene. They are also extremely good catalytic reactions; high turnovers, fast rates and mild conditions are typically observed.

The osmium-catalyzed asymmetric dihydroxylation reaction is one of the more elegant and reliable reactions for 1,2-functionalization of alkenes.⁴ The hydroxylations can be highly enantioselective (> 90% ee) in the presence of chiral ligands. The cinchona alkaloids dihydroquinine (DHQ) and dihydroquinidine (DHQD) are the most developed ligands and have led to considerable increases in enantioselectivities. However, the most effective ligands are the dimeric derivatives formed by linking the cinchona alkaloids to heterocyclic spacers ((DHQ)₂-PHAL; Figure 1.4 A).¹⁴ Besides inducing high enantioselectivity, the ligands accelerate the reaction by stabilizing the transition state through aromatic stacking interactions.¹⁵ Numerous stoichiometric oxidants have been successfully used, but K₃Fe(CN)₆ results in greater enantioselectivity.¹⁶ A by-product-free preparation using molecular oxygen as the stoichiometric oxidant has also recently been published.¹⁷

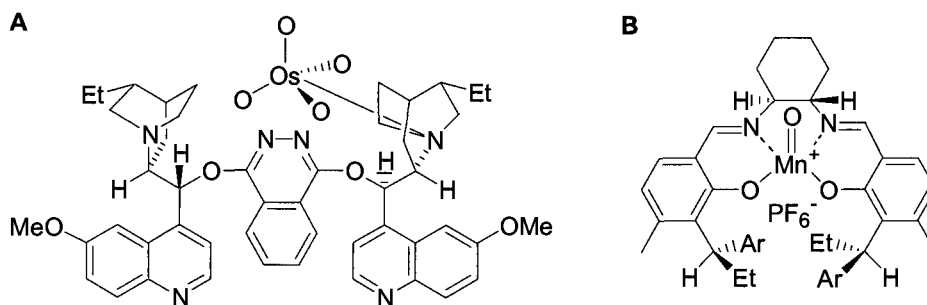


Figure 1.4 Structures of (A) Sharpless asymmetric dihydroxylation catalyst and (B) Jacobsen-Suzuki asymmetric epoxidation catalyst.

A variety of chiral manganese(III) salens have been shown to be efficient catalysts for the asymmetric epoxidation of unfunctionalized olefins. The catalysts are used in combination with a stoichiometric amount of oxidant, and evidence exists to support a Mn(V) oxo species as the active oxidant (Figure 1.3B). Examples of stoichiometric oxidants successfully used include NaOCl¹⁸, idosylarenes¹⁹ and amine *N*-oxides²⁰. Epoxidations with chiral Mn(III) salen complexes afforded high enantioselectivities with a wide range of different substituted olefins. For example, asymmetric epoxidation of *cis*-*B*-methylstyrene by commercial bleach (NaOCl) afforded (*R,S*)-*cis*-*B*-methylstyrene oxide in 87% yield and 82% ee. Several other appealing features exist for using chiral Mn(III) salen catalysts for asymmetric epoxidations. The reactions can be run in air, purification of solvents is unnecessary, the reagents are inexpensive, and the workup procedure is simple. Overall, epoxidations using Jacobsen's catalyst give yields of up to 97% with asymmetric induction as high as 98% ee.

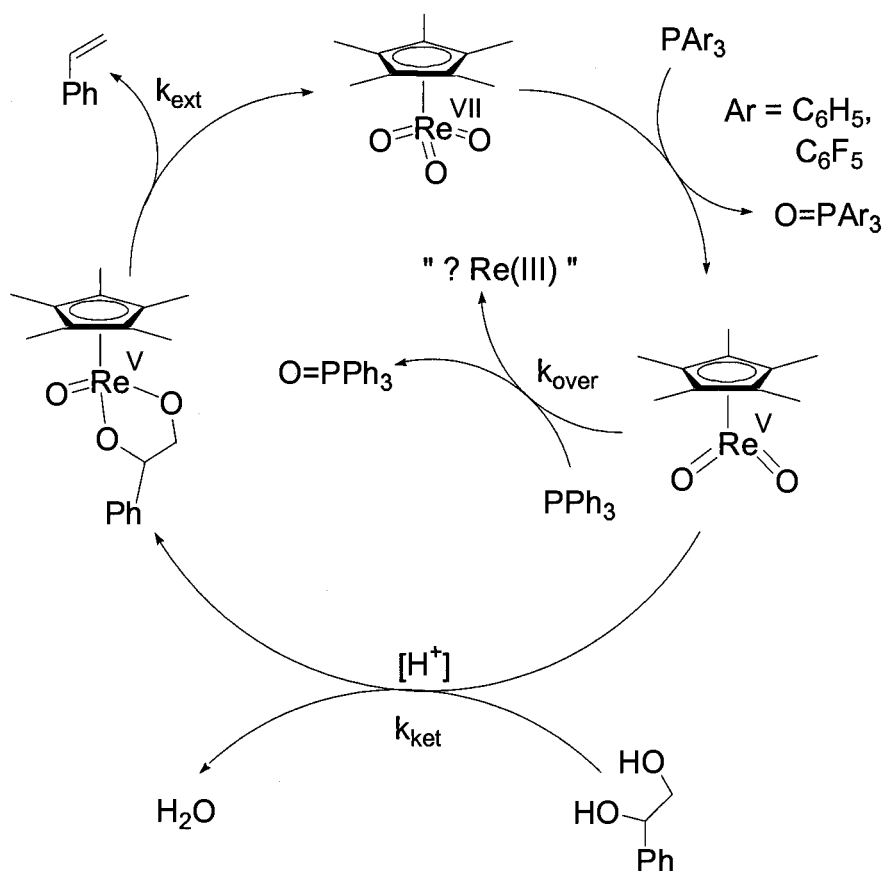
1.4 C-O Bond Cleavage Mediated By Oxo Metal Complexes

Metal mediated cleavage of C-O bonds with concomitant formation of a M=O bond can also have practical applications. An excellent example is the use of high oxidation state oxo metal catalysts to convert carbohydrates into other useful chemicals.²¹ Since most fuels and organic chemicals come from dwindling fossil fuel supplies, the development of a process that converts renewable biomass into raw materials is desirable. Biomass is the most abundant and renewable resource; unfortunately, carbohydrates are often too oxygen-rich to be of any direct value without extensive elaboration. Selective removal of oxygen can retain stereocenters while reducing structural complexity. In addition, the product resulting from oxygen removal, for example an olefin, can be further functionalized. Another possible application of high oxidation state oxo metal complexes is the removal of various organosulfur compounds present in petroleum and natural gas feedstocks. Since sulfur is isoelectronic with oxygen, similar nonoxidative processes might be applicable to sulfur containing substrates.

The development of a catalytic process to deoxydehydrate diols and polyols to alkenes and allylic alcohols was published^{21a} shortly after reports of alkene extrusion from rhenium(VII) diolate complexes at elevated temperatures.²² Scheme 1.1 illustrates the catalytic cycle responsible for converting vicinal diols to alkenes. The catalytic cycle involves in situ reduction of Cp^*ReO_3 ($\text{Cp}^* = \text{C}_5\text{Me}_5$) with phosphines, cyclocondensation with the diol and cycloreversion of the

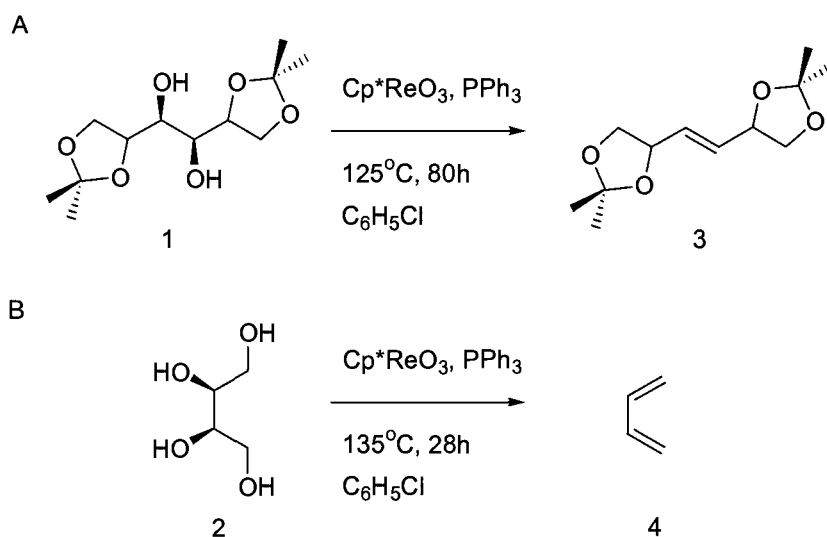
corresponding rhenium diolate complex to give alkene. Cycloreversion also regenerates Cp^*ReO_3 , which is then returned back into the catalytic cycle. Unfortunately, catalyst deactivation prevented efficient catalysis. Low turnover numbers ranging from 1 to 60 were obtained. Catalyst deactivation was attributed to over-reduction of the Re(V) complex by phosphine to an inactive Re(III) species. However, the true identity of the Re(III) species has remained elusive.

Scheme 1.1



Reactions run in coordinating solvents, such as tetrahydrofuran (THF) or *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone (NMP) were unsuccessful compared to reactions run in chlorobenzene. It was soon realized catalyst deactivation was a function of the partitioning of Cp^*ReO_2 to form $\text{Cp}^*\text{ReO}(\text{diolate})$ (k_{ket}) and over-reduction (k_{over}) to form the inactive species. The partition coefficient was determined experimentally to be $k_{\text{ket}}/k_{\text{over}} = 60$ for benzene- d_6 and $k_{\text{ket}}/k_{text{over}} = 2$ for THF- d_8 . The addition of *p*-toluenesulfonic acid in THF as a cocatalyst resulted in efficient catalysis by accelerating the formation of diolate compared to over-reduction. Catalytic deoxygenation of the protected alditol **1** to the *trans*-alkene was achieved in 86% yield (Scheme 1.2A), while the unprotected alditol **2** yielded the fully deoxygenated product butadiene in 80% yield (Scheme 1.2 B).

Scheme 1.2

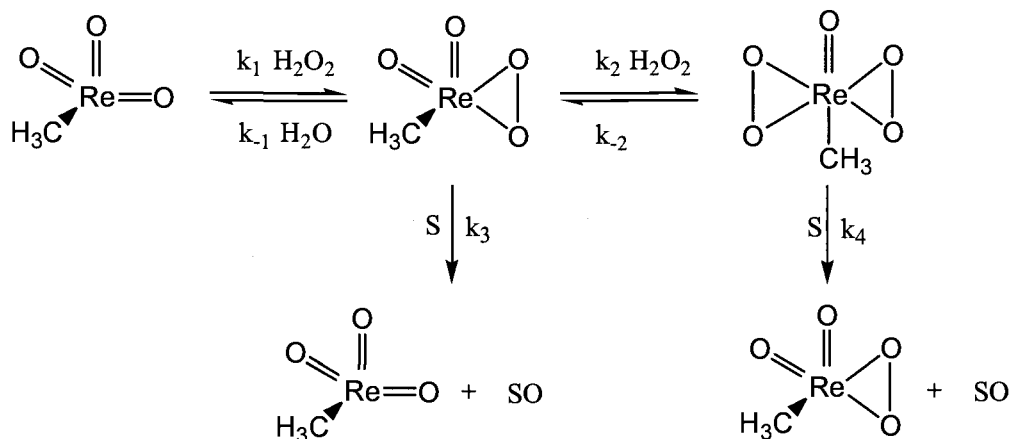


1.5 MTO Catalyzed Epoxidation of Alkenes

An interesting periodic trend is observed for epoxidation and dihydroxylation of olefins. Early-transition metal ions such as titanium²³, vanadium²⁴ and chromium²⁵ are excellent epoxidation reagents, while permanganate²⁶, ruthenium tetraoxide²⁷ and osmium tetraoxide⁴ preferentially dihydroxylate olefins. Rhenium, which is located in Group VII, is positioned nicely in the middle of the transition series. Rhenium oxo compounds (LReO_3) exhibit a range of reactivity patterns that mimic both dihydroxylation and epoxidation reactivity as a function of L. When $\text{L} = \text{CH}_3$, epoxidation of alkenes occurs with hydrogen peroxide.²⁸ When $\text{L} = \text{Cp}^*$ ($\text{Cp}^* = \text{C}_5\text{Me}_5$), a metallodioxylate is formed from strained alkenes.²⁹ Therefore, rhenium oxo compounds offer a useful model for probing both epoxidation and dihydroxylation mechanisms.

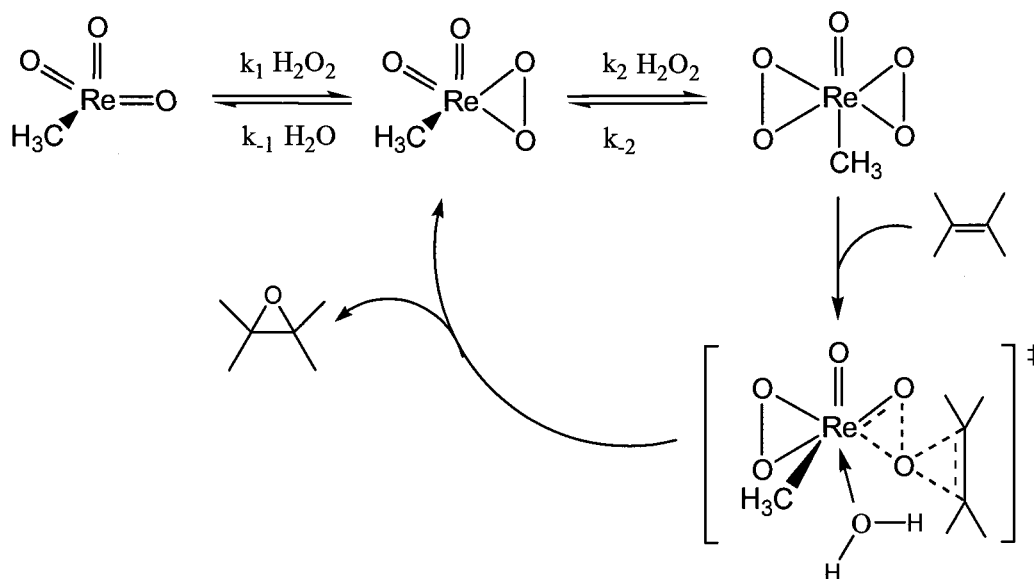
Methyltrioxorhenium (MTO) has been successfully used to catalytically activate hydrogen peroxide toward a number of useful transformations. Some of these include the oxidation of alkynes³⁰, phosphines³¹, sulfides³², halides³³ and, more importantly, alkenes²⁸. MTO activates hydrogen peroxide through the formation of mono- and bis-peroxorhenium compounds (Scheme 1.3).³⁴ Each has been detected by ^1H and ^{13}C NMR and by UV. In addition, the structure of the diglyme adduct of the bis-peroxo complex was confirmed by X-ray crystallography.³⁵

Scheme 1.3



There are two possible catalytic cycles for the oxidation of substrates (S) (Scheme 1.3). First, at high hydrogen peroxide concentrations the equilibrium is shifted to the right and only the bis-peroxorhenium compound builds up to an appreciable concentration. Conversely, at low concentrations of hydrogen peroxide, a second catalytic cycle can operate where the mono-peroxo complex is responsible for the oxidations.

Scheme 1.4

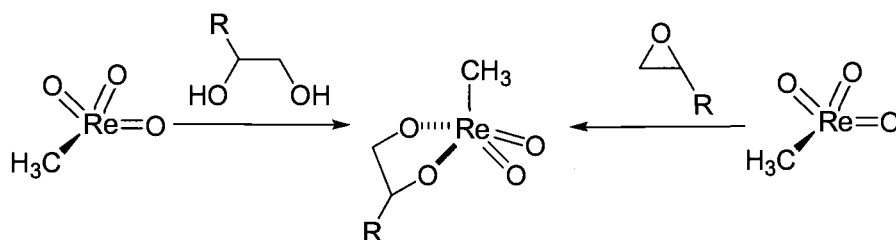


Epoxidations catalyzed by MTO are stereospecific and allow oxidation of the alkene without overoxidation. Since MTO is soluble in both aqueous and organic solvents, epoxides are obtained as products in acetonitrile and 1,2-diols are formed from catalytic ring opening of the epoxide in aqueous media.^{28a} The epoxidation mechanism is proposed to occur via direct O-atom transfer mechanism (Scheme 1.4).³⁶ The mechanism involves nucleophilic attack of the electron-rich olefin on the electrophilic peroxy oxygen. Concerted transfer of oxygen and subsequent reaction with H_2O_2 regenerates the η^2 -peroxy complex to continue the catalytic cycle. The driving force for these reactions is the strength of the $\text{Re}=\text{O}$ bond. Both the mono and bis-peroxo compounds regenerate the $\text{Re}=\text{O}$ bond after O-atom transfer. Labeling studies have been performed to verify that the oxygen

transferred to the substrate comes from the η^2 -peroxide and not from the terminal oxo group.³⁷

The formation of rhenium(VII) diolates has also been observed. Two routes were shown to account for diolate formation: refluxing MTO with diol,³⁸ and refluxing MTO with epoxides (Scheme 1.5).³⁹ The formation of rhenium(VII) diolates reduces the catalytic turnover in the epoxidation reaction when the supply of hydrogen peroxide becomes exhausted.

Scheme 1.5

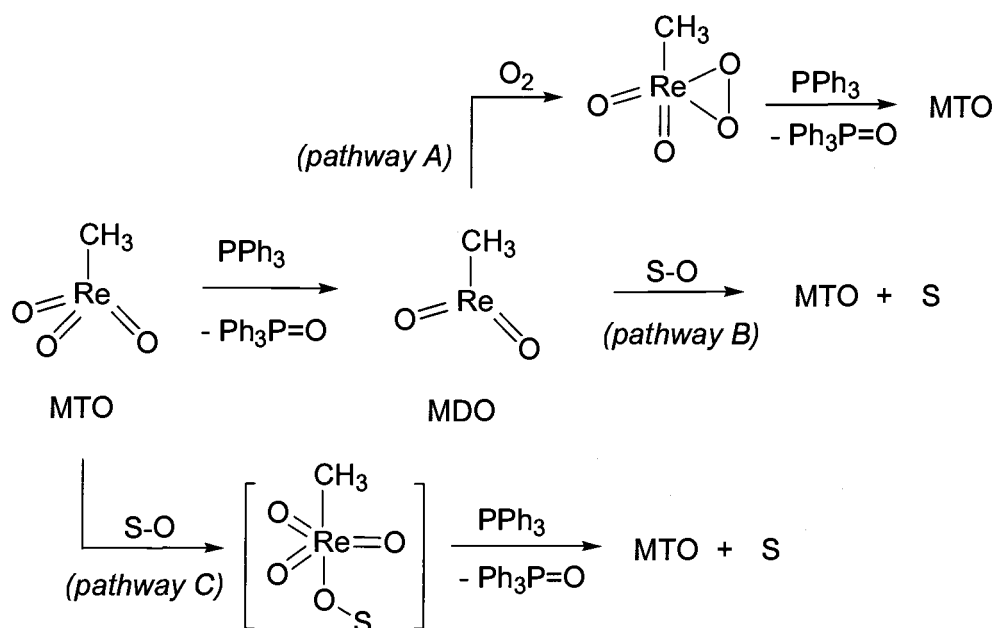


1.6 Atom-Transfer Reactions Catalyzed by MTO

MTO is also involved in other oxygen atom transfer processes. MTO catalyzes the transfer of oxygen from molecular oxygen, epoxides, sulfoxides, aromatic tertiary amine oxides, triphenylarsine oxide and triphenylstilbene oxide to the oxygen acceptor triphenylphosphine or hydrophosphorous acid.⁴⁰ By analogy to the mechanism reported above for Cp^*ReO_3 catalyzed deoxydehydrations, a

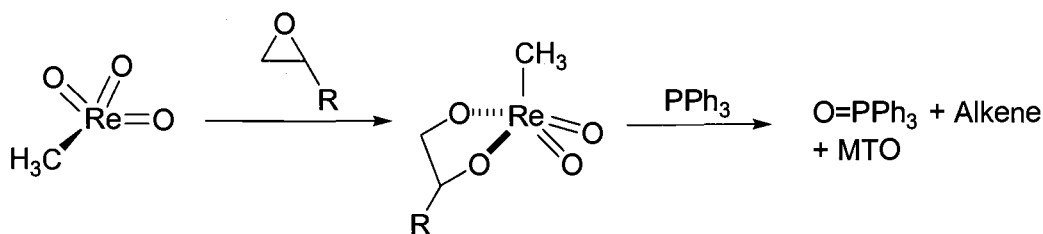
rhodium(V) intermediate CH_3ReO_2 (MDO) or $\text{CH}_3\text{Re}(\text{O})_2\cdot\text{OPPh}_3$ results from the reduction of MTO by phosphines (Scheme 1.6). Once formed, the rhodium(V) intermediate reacts with the oxygen containing substrate (S-O) (pathway B), depending on the presence of molecular oxygen. If the reduction is done in the presence of molecular oxygen (pathway A), phosphine oxides and MTO are produced. The mono η^2 -peroxorhodium complex, which is one of two intermediates involved in MTO catalyzed epoxidation of olefins (See Scheme 1.3), is the likely intermediate formed from MDO and O_2 . However, detecting the peroxo intermediate is difficult since the conditions used to generate MDO will also reduce the η^2 -peroxorhodium complex.

Scheme 1.6



The second possible mechanistic explanation is prior coordination of the oxygen containing substrate (S-O) to MTO, followed by abstraction of oxygen by triphenylphosphine and regeneration of the catalyst (pathway C, see Scheme 1.6). Since the rhenium center is extremely electron deficient in MTO, prior coordination of the substrate to MTO is quite plausible. Support for this alternative mechanism is provided by the observation that rhenium(VII) diolate complexes, which are generated from MTO and epoxide (see Scheme 1.5), react with triphenylphosphine to produce alkene and MTO (Scheme 1.7). Obviously, this mechanistic possibility does not exist for deoxygenations catalyzed by the more electron rich Cp^*ReO_3 complex.

Scheme 1.7

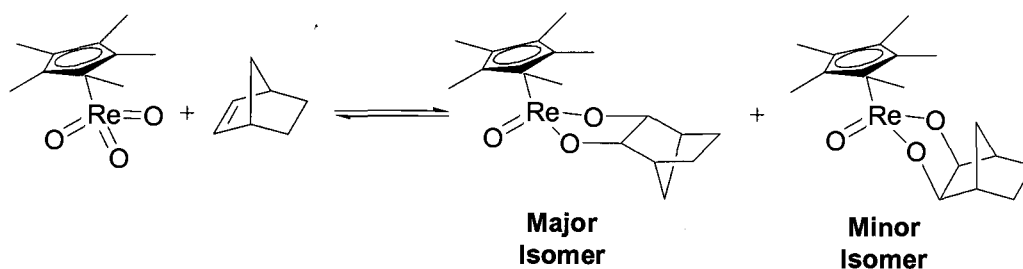


1.7 Dihydroxylation of Alkenes by Cp^*ReO_3

As previously mentioned, structural modifications in rhenium oxo chemistry have a major impact on molecular reactivity. In MTO ($\text{L} = \text{CH}_3$), the

ligand can be classified as a strong σ / weak π -donor. When $L = \text{Cp}^*$, the ligand is a moderate σ / good π -donor. As a consequence of the different donor properties of the ligands, the reactivity of the two compounds is completely different. MTO reacts with hydrogen peroxide to form rhenium peroxo complexes which epoxidize olefins. Conversely, Cp^*ReO_3 does not epoxidize olefins in the presence of hydrogen peroxide. However, it will react with strained alkenes to form rhenium(V) diolate complexes²⁹ while MTO is unreactive.

Scheme 1.8



Strained alkenes, such as norbornene, norbornadiene and *trans*-cyclooctene, undergo cycloaddition with Cp^*ReO_3 to form an equilibrium mixture of diolate complexes and reactants.⁴¹ In the case of norbornene, the *exo, anti* isomer was the major product identified along with the *exo, syn* isomer as the minor product (Scheme 1.8). A strain-induced acceleration was also observed for more strained alkenes. For example, the pseudo-first-order rate constant for alkene oxidation of norbornadiene at 370.4K was $7.20 \times 10^{-5} \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$, while the rate constant for *trans*-

cyclooctene at 370.4K was $3.92 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$. Since the total strain energy between the alkene and corresponding alkane is 8.0 kcal/mol for norbornadiene and 9.0 kcal/mol for *trans*-cyclooctene, a larger rate constant for alkene oxidation is observed and expected for *trans*-cyclooctene. In the case of unstrained alkenes, no addition to Cp^*ReO_3 is observed; cycloreversion of the diolate occurs instead. The results clearly indicate that Cp^*ReO_3 is at a thermodynamic balance point with respect to diolate formation and diolate cycloreversion.

The double bond strain energy for norbornene was estimated to be 5.7 kcal/mol based on its heat of hydrogenation.⁴² In addition, the temperature dependence of the equilibrium constant (K) for norbornene oxidation by Cp^*ReO_3 gave $\Delta H^\circ = -10.9 \text{ kcal/mol}$ and $\Delta S^\circ = -22.8 \text{ eu}$. The ΔH° for a disubstituted alkene was determined by subtracting the strain energy from the ΔH° for norbornene. Isodemic evaluation of methyl substitution gives ΔH° for ethylene, which is then used to calculate the ΔH_{rxn} for $\text{Cp}^*\text{ReO}_3 + \text{olefin} \rightarrow \text{Diolate}$. The oxidation of unstrained alkenes with Cp^*ReO_3 was determined to be thermoneutral or slightly exothermic. Then using C-C, C=C and C-O bond dissociation energies⁴³, the Re-O π -bond strength was determined to be approximately 50 kcal/mol. Computational studies confirmed that reacting Cp^*ReO_3 with ethylene is exothermic by 4 kcal/mol.⁴⁴ Even though the reaction is slightly exothermic, the oxidation of unstrained alkenes with Cp^*ReO_3 is disfavored because of the unfavorable change in entropy. The implication of these results is that the Re=O π -bond in Cp^*ReO_3 is too strong to be an effective dihydroxylation reagent for any but strained alkenes.

1.8 Cycloreversion of Rhenium(V) Diolates

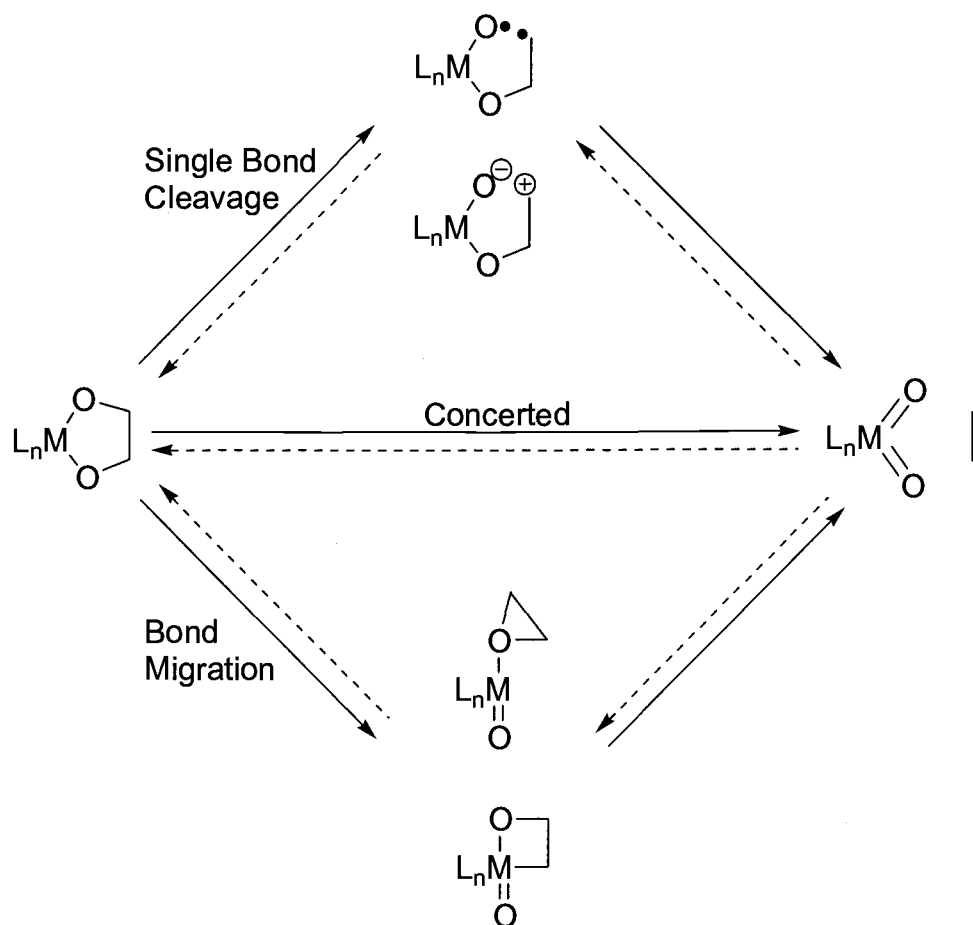
The condensation of substituted vicinal diols to a 1:1 mixture of Cp^*ReO_3 and PPh_3 results in the formation of rhenium(V) diolate complexes.^{22,45} The process is accelerated and the yields increased by the addition of one equivalent of *p*-toluenesulfonic acid (PTSA). Furthermore, 4 Å molecular sieves facilitate the process by removing water formed from the condensation reaction.

Rhenium(V) diolates of unstrained alkenes will undergo alkene extrusion at elevated temperatures.²² Thermal cycloreversion of rhenium diolates is the microscopic reverse of alkene dihydroxylation by metal oxides. The cycloaddition of OsO_4 to alkenes, a reaction surrounded by mechanistic controversy, is the quintessential example of a metal reagent adding two oxygen atoms at a carbon-carbon double bond.⁴ Particular attention has focused on whether the reaction is concerted ([3+2] mechanism) or whether it proceeds through a stepwise intermediate ([2+2] mechanism). Since LReO_3 is isoelectronic with OsO_4 and cycloreversion is mechanistically the reverse of cycloaddition, the cycloreversion of rhenium(V) diolates is an excellent probe to investigate cycloaddition of OsO_4 to alkenes.

Cycloreversion of rhenium(V) diolates is highly stereospecific and proceeds between 50-120°C.²² Scheme 1.9 lists several possible mechanisms for this reaction. Since the reaction is stereospecific, mechanisms involving homolytic or heterolytic cleavage of a C-O bond can be immediately excluded. However, this

presumes that any intermediate formed will undergo single bond rotation faster than cleavage of the second C-O bond to form alkene. Further evidence against an ionic and homolytic mechanism is the observation that substituents that would stabilize radical or ionic intermediates by lengthening their lifetime, still resulted in maintained stereospecificity. In addition, an ionic mechanism is unlikely since the rate of diolate cycloreversion was largely unaffected by changes in solvent.⁴⁶

Scheme 1.9

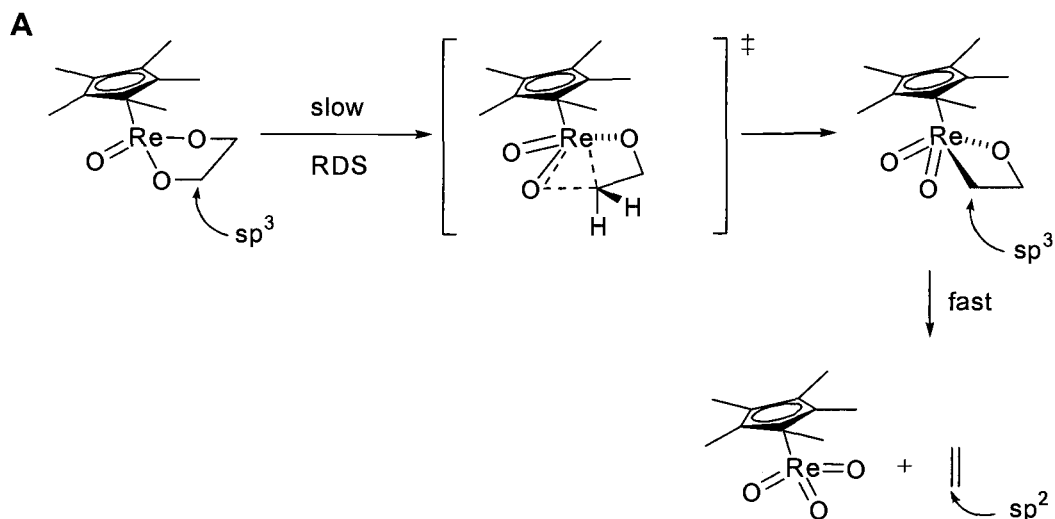


Possible stepwise mechanisms include migration of carbon to rhenium to form a metalloxetane intermediate or migration of carbon to the second diolate oxygen forming a coordinated epoxide intermediate. Each of these intermediates would then undergo a rapid concerted fragmentation to form alkene and Cp^*ReO_3 . Preliminary experimental evidence supported cleavage of only one of the two C-O bonds in the transition state. Experimental evidence in favor of a stepwise mechanism versus a concerted mechanism include the following: (1) The extrusion of alkenes was independent of strain in the newly formed double bond.²² (2) A significant secondary kinetic isotope effect was observed, indicating considerable C-O bond cleavage at the transition state.²² (3) Structure/reactivity studies demonstrated staggered diolate conformations cycloreverted faster than eclipsed diolate conformations.⁴⁷

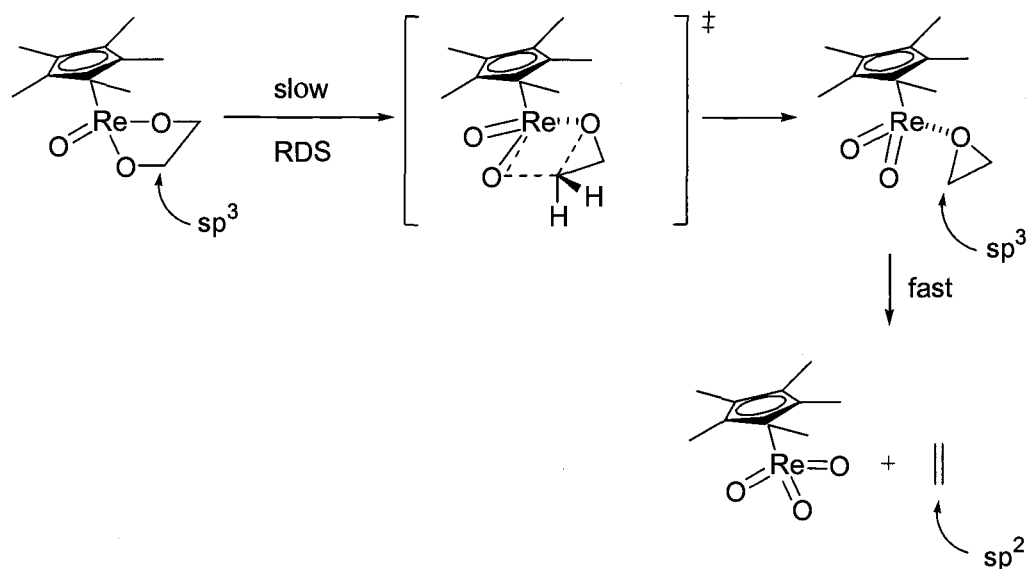
Activation parameters for alkene oxidation of norbornene, norbornadiene and *trans*-cyclooctene and activation parameters for alkene extrusion of ethylene, 2-butene and bicyclo[2.2.2]oct-2-ene from $\text{Cp}^*\text{Re}(\text{O})(\text{OCH}(\text{R})\text{CH}(\text{R})\text{O})$ were determined. The activation parameters demonstrated that strain in the alkene had a large effect on the enthalpy of activation (ΔH^\ddagger) for alkene oxidation but little or no effect on the enthalpy of activation (ΔH^\ddagger) for alkene extrusion.²² For instance, the ΔH^\ddagger for alkene extrusion was determined to be approximately 30 kcal/mol for each rhenium(V) diolate tested, while a decrease of the ΔH^\ddagger for alkene oxidation from 18 kcal/mol for norbornene (strain = 5.7 kcal/mol) to 12 kcal/mol for *trans*-cyclooctene (strain = 9.0 kcal/mol) resulted with increasing strain in the double

bond. The results clearly indicate the reacting carbon is sp^3 hybridized at the transition state. The absence of variation in ΔH^\ddagger for alkene extrusion is consistent with a stepwise mechanism since the hybridization of the reacting carbon does not change going from diolate to either the metalloxetane or coordinated epoxide intermediate (Scheme 1.10). This does, however, assume migration of carbon to form the metalloxetane or migration of carbon to form the coordinated epoxide to be the rate determining step. A concerted pathway, which is the only remaining mechanistic possibility, would be inconsistent since an increase in ΔH^\ddagger for alkene extrusion and a decrease in ΔH^\ddagger for alkene oxidation would be expected.⁴⁸

Scheme 1.10



Scheme 1.10 Continued

B

The results from the strain studies can be rationalized for the concerted process if the transition state is very reactant-like. If an early transition state existed one would expect very little rehybridization of the two reacting carbons from sp^3 to sp^2 , which would be consistent with the earlier data. However, the high ΔH^\ddagger values for diolate cycloreversions are inconsistent with an early transition state. Furthermore, a significant secondary deuterium kinetic isotope effect ($k_{H4}/k_{D4} = 1.25 \pm 0.05$ at 100°C) indicated substantial C-O bond cleavage at or before the transition state. An early transition state would result in a low KIE since little rehybridization is occurring.

Conformational studies on rhenium(V) diolates also support a stepwise mechanism.⁴⁷ The dihedral angles of various substituted diolates were determined from H-H coupling constants and the Karplus relationship. The study revealed that the reaction rate for alkene extrusion is dependent on the geometry of the diolate ring. The rate is inhibited if the ring is flattened and promoted if the ring is staggered. A concerted pathway would require a flat or eclipsed conformation to ensure proper alignment of the developing π bond. The increase in rate with more staggered conformations, coupled with the effect of strain on the ΔH^\ddagger and the significant secondary KIE, suggests a stepwise mechanism is operating in rhenium(V) diolate cycloreversions.

Even though preliminary experimental data argued against a concerted mechanism, recent high-level computational calculations argue that the concerted [3+2] process is energetically favored over formation of a metalloxetane.^{44,49} This is the simplest mechanism and is the microscopic reverse of Crigee's concerted [3+2] cycloaddition mechanism proposed for the addition of alkenes to OsO_4 .⁵⁰ Among the findings from these calculations are the following: (1) The activation barrier for the [2+2] process is higher than the barrier for the [3+2] process. For example, the activation energy for [2+2] addition of ethylene to Cp^*ReO_3 was calculated to be 168.6 kJ/mol, while the barrier for [3+2] addition was calculated to be 70.3 kJ/mol. (2) The metallaoxetane forms of ReO_4^- - C_2H_4 and ClReO_3 - C_2H_4 are lower in energy than the metallodioxylates, whereas the metallodioxylates of OsO_4 - C_2H_4 and CpReO_3 - C_2H_4 are more stable than the

corresponding metalloxetanes. (3) LReO_3 compounds ($\text{L} = \text{O}^-, \text{Cl}, \text{Cp}$) have higher activation barriers for the [3+2] process ($\text{CpReO}_3 = 15.7 \text{ kcal/mol}$, $\text{ClReO}_3 = 24.0 \text{ kcal/mol}$, $\text{ReO}_4^- = 37 \text{ kcal/mol}$) compared to OsO_4 (6.9 kcal/mol).

Numerous studies have shown that primary and secondary kinetic isotope effects (KIE) can be used to determine the mechanism and transition state geometry of organic reactions.⁵¹ The advantage of the experiment compared to other techniques is it imposes the least possible structural change and thus minimizes risk of structurally-induced change of mechanism. The mechanism for enantioselective asymmetric dihydroxylation was resolved experimentally and theoretically by determining the primary and secondary KIEs for the oxidation of *tert*-butylethylene.⁵² As previously mentioned, the mechanism for osmium tetroxide mediated dihydroxylation of olefins has been surrounded by controversy. Mechanistic investigations have focused on two major proposals: (1) A concerted [3+2] cycloaddition that directly forms the cyclic osmate ester, or (2) A [2+2] process involving formation of an osmaoxetane followed by ring expansion to form the cyclic osmate ester. The primary KIEs at the two olefin positions were determined experimentally to be 1.027 and 1.028, while the secondary KIE at the substituted carbon was determined to be 0.906. Theoretical DFT calculations predicted primary KIEs of 1.025 and 1.025 for the [3+2] process and 0.989 and 1.039 for the [2+2] process. The secondary D KIE for the substituted carbon was calculated to be 0.907 for the concerted process and 0.880 for the stepwise process. Since the both carbons show identical primary KIE and the magnitude of the

primary and second KIEs match the theoretical values for the [3+2] process, it was concluded that enantioselective asymmetric dihydroxylations proceed through a concerted [3+2] rate-limiting step.

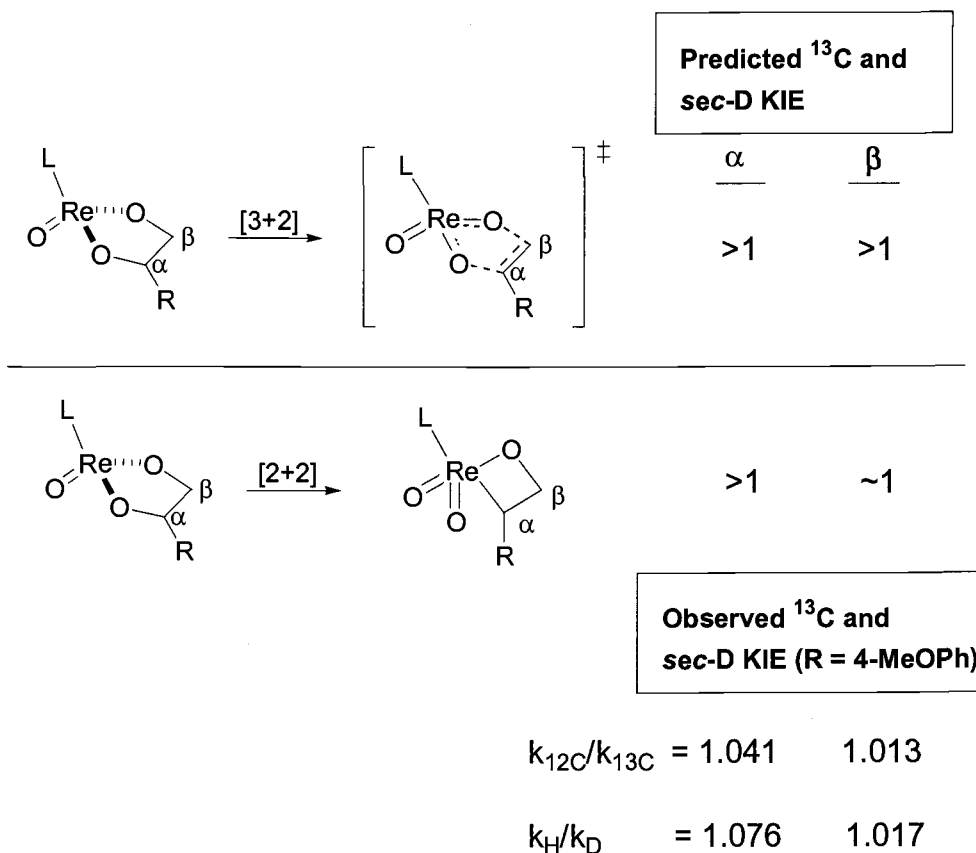
The method used to determine the primary ^{13}C KIEs from natural abundance isotopomers using NMR techniques was developed by Singleton et. al..⁵³ The methodology is based on the phenomenon that the starting materials will become enriched by isotopically slower-reacting materials as the reaction proceeds to greater conversion. The isotope effects are calculated according to equation (3). R/R_0 represents the ratios of isotopically enriched starting material recovered relative to the original starting material. A nonreacting reference position is used to determine the proportion of labeled compounds, compared to unlabeled starting material. F is the fractional conversion of reactants ($0 < F < 1$). The advantage of this method is at high conversions the R/R_0 ratio approaches infinity and the observed KIEs are magnified. In addition, individual KIE's can be determined simultaneously.

$$\text{KIE} = \frac{\ln(1-F)}{\ln((1-F)R/R_0)} \quad (3)$$

Primary and secondary kinetic isotope effects were also used to resolve the mechanistic controversy surrounding the thermal cycloreversion of rhenium(VII) diolates. The cycloreversion of 4-methoxystyrene from the corresponding

Tp'Re(O)(diolato) complex (Tp' = hydrido-*tris*-(3,5-dimethylpyrazolyl)borate) at 103°C was consistent with an asynchronous but concerted transition state.⁵⁴ For the concerted [3+2] process, cleavage of both carbon-oxygen bonds occurs at the transition state. As a result, the primary and secondary effects at both positions are expected to be greater than unity (Scheme 1.11). Conversely, the [2+2] process would result in cleavage of only one of the C-O bonds. The [2+2] process would then result in primary and secondary effects to greater than unity at one position and unity at the other position. The primary KIEs resulting from cycloreversion of 4-methoxystyrene were determined to be $k_{12C}/k_{13C} = 1.041 \pm 0.005$ at the α position and 1.013 ± 0.006 at the β position. In addition, the secondary KIEs were $k_H/k_D = 1.076 \pm 0.005$ at the α position and 1.017 ± 0.005 at the β position. The data clearly indicates KIEs greater than unity at both the α and β positions, though only slightly greater than unity at the β position. Since both reacting positions show KIEs greater than unity, the extrusion of 4-methoxystyrene was determined to be an asynchronous concerted mechanism with more bond breaking occurring at the α carbon than the β carbon. The transition-state structure was considered to be quite flexible (physically and electronically), which would account for earlier experimental data that supported a stepwise mechanism.

Scheme 1.11

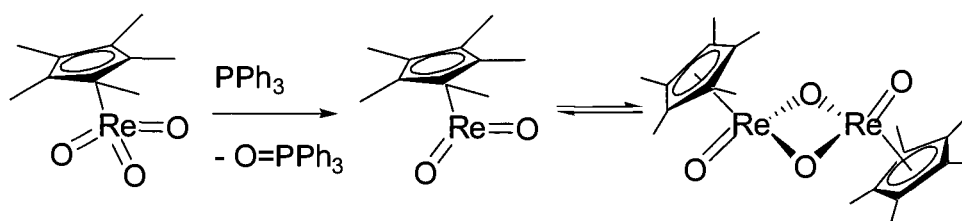


1.9 Atom-Transfer Reactions Catalyzed by Cp^*ReO_3

The abstraction of an oxo group from Cp^*ReO_3 by oxophilic PPh_3 results in the formation of the bridging oxo dimer $(\text{Cp}^*\text{ReO})_2(\mu\text{-O})_2$ (Scheme 1.12).⁵⁵ Fragmentation of the dimer to the reactive monomer, Cp^*ReO_2 , was observable by both NMR and UV-vis spectroscopy.⁵⁶ At room temperature, a single ^1H NMR signal, assigned to the dimer, at δ 1.96 ppm was observed. However, upon

warming, a second signal corresponding to the monomer was observed at δ 1.60 ppm. The dimer / monomer equilibrium constant was calculated to be $(6.05 \pm 1.29) \times 10^{-4}$ M at 366K. Overall, the reaction enthalpy for transfer of oxygen from Cp^*ReO_3 to PPh_3 is exothermic by about 30 kcal/mol experimentally⁵⁷ or 20 kcal/mol calculated.⁵⁸ The strength of the $\text{Re}=\text{O}$ bond was determined to be 117 kcal/mol, while the bond strength of $\text{P}=\text{O}$ in $\text{O}=\text{PPh}_3$ is roughly 136 kcal/mol. The difference in bond strengths between the $\text{Re}=\text{O}$ bond in Cp^*ReO_3 and $\text{P}=\text{O}$ bond in $\text{O}=\text{PPh}_3$ makes up about ~ 19 kcal/mol of the total 30 kcal/mol exothermicity. The remaining 11 kcal/mol is attributed to formation of the dimer.

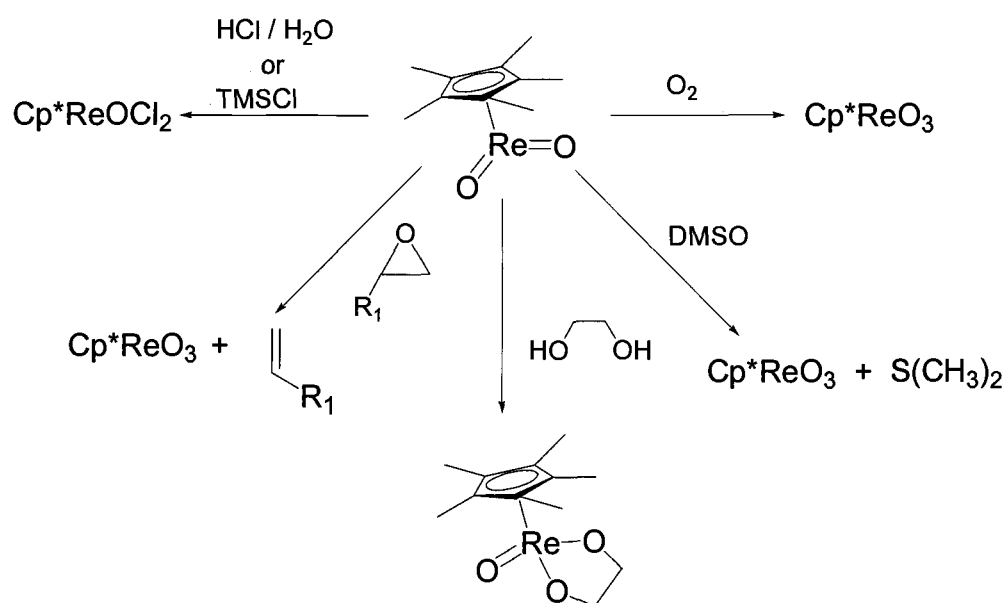
Scheme 1.12



The monomer, Cp^*ReO_2 , is a $16\text{ e}^- d^2$ cis-dioxo complex that is highly reactive because of competition from the two oxo groups to π bond into a single empty d orbital. Besides reacting with vicinal diols to form rhenium(V) diolates, the Re(V) monomer is capable of other oxygen atom abstraction processes. These include the deoxygenation of epoxides, sulfoxides and activation of molecular

oxygen (Scheme 1.13).⁵⁶ In addition, the monomer is susceptible to protonation and nucleophilic attack in aqueous hydrochloric acid to generate the dichloro(oxo)(η^5 -pentamethylcyclopentadienyl)rhenium(V) complex.⁵⁵

Scheme 1.13



As shown in Scheme 1.6 and 1.13, LReO_2 reacts with epoxides producing alkene and LReO_3 . An initial study with $\text{L} = \text{Cp}^*$ demonstrated Cp^*ReO_2 , which is in equilibrium with its dimer $[(\text{Cp}^*\text{ReO})_2(\mu\text{-O})_2]$, would react with several epoxides at $50\text{-}105^\circ\text{C}$.⁵⁶ The epoxides tested include the following: 1,1-dimethyloxirane, styrene oxide, cyclohexene oxide and (*E*)- and (*Z*)-1,2-dimethyloxirane. The deoxygenation of (*E*)- and (*Z*)-1,2-dimethyloxirane resulted

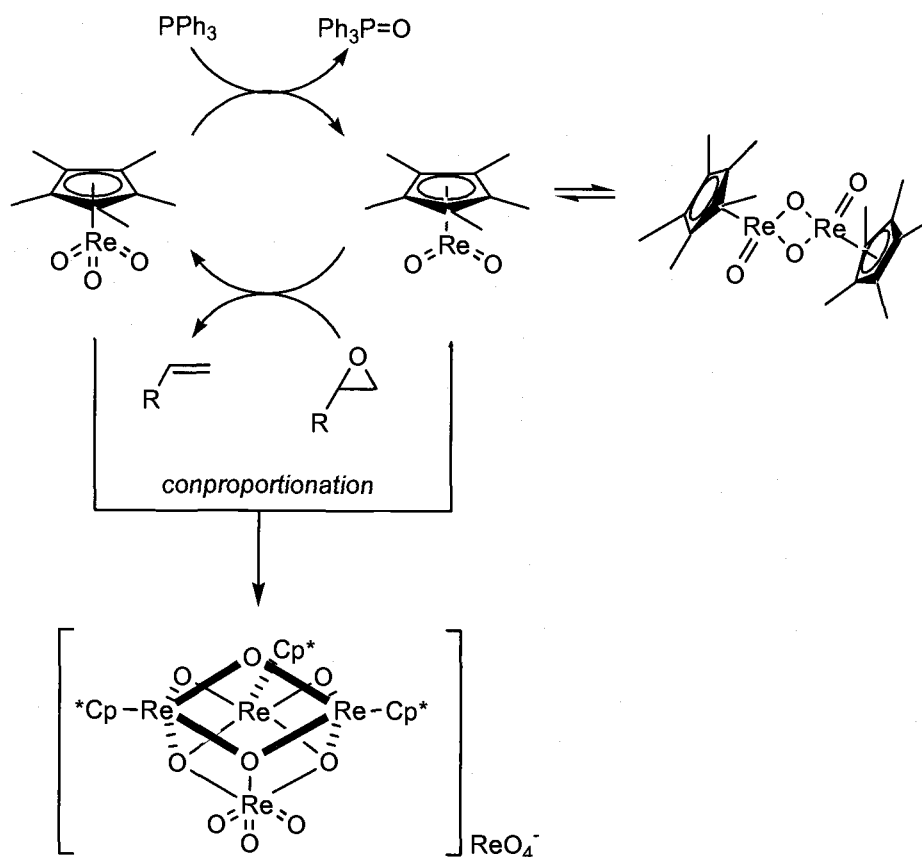
in retention of configuration and the rate law was determined to be half order in dimer and first order in epoxide (Eq. 4).

$$-d[(\text{Cp}^*\text{ReO})_2(\mu\text{-O})_2]/dt = k_{\text{obs}}[\text{epoxide}][(\text{Cp}^*\text{ReO})_2(\mu\text{-O})_2]^{1/2} \quad (4)$$

The development of a process for deoxygenating epoxides using catalytic amounts of rhenium were soon reported after the discovery that $(\text{Cp}^*\text{ReO})_2(\mu\text{-O})_2$ / Cp^*ReO_2 deoxygenated epoxides.⁶⁰ The catalytic process involves reduction of Cp^*ReO_3 with triphenylphosphine to generate Cp^*ReO_2 (Scheme 1.14). Cp^*ReO_2 then reacts with epoxide to generate alkene and regenerate Cp^*ReO_3 . Unfortunately, low turnover numbers were observed for each of the epoxides studied. The catalyst deactivation resulted from comproportionation of the reduced and oxidized intermediates to form a novel tetranuclear cluster that was unreactive to epoxides. The structure of the cluster was elucidated by X-ray crystallography and exhibited a unique IR peak at 736 cm^{-1} . Not surprisingly, an increase in the concentration of triphenylphosphine led to improved conversion from <5% to 50%. An increase in triphenylphosphine rapidly reduces any amount of Cp^*ReO_3 , thus preventing Cp^*ReO_3 from comproportionating with Cp^*ReO_2 . The choice of epoxide was also shown to enhance catalytic turnover. Epoxides with electron-withdrawing substituents, such as 3-fluoropropylene oxide, resulted in larger turnover numbers. Formation of the inactive tetranuclear cluster explains why

catalyst deactivation occurred for the deoxygenation of carbohydrates catalyzed by Cp^*ReO_3 (See Scheme 1.1).

Scheme 1.14



1.10 Conclusions

The oxo chemistry of rhenium has expanded dramatically within the last twenty years spurred on by interest in high-valent organometallic oxides.⁶⁰ Chapter

1 has focused primarily on MTO and Cp^*ReO_3 mediated oxidations and deoxygenations. The advancement of MTO and Cp^*ReO_3 mediated C-O bond formation and cleavage has been mainly pioneered by the Herrmann group in Munich, the Espenson group at Iowa State University and the Gable group at Oregon State University. Progress has been made in developing new oxidation reagents and understanding the mechanisms involved in rhenium-mediated organic oxidations. However, several new and old issues remain concerning the question of mechanism in these oxidations.

Some of the questions that this work will address include the following: (1) Does a mechanistic relationship exist relating epoxidation and bishydroxylation processes? This chapter has already shown that rhenium-mediated epoxidations and hydroxylations can be controlled by structure. (2) Can changes in structure allow the isolation of the reactive monomer LReO_2 after reduction of LReO_3 rather than the bridged oxo compound $[\text{LReO}]_2(\mu\text{-O})_2$. (3) Can efficient catalytic deoxygenation of epoxides occur with simple changes in structure? For example, can changes in structure prevent the formation of clusters? (4) Does a metal-substrate bond exist during the deoxygenation of epoxides or are all the C-O bonds cleaved remotely from the metal? (5) Do the two C-O bonds in the epoxide cleave at the same time or one after the other?

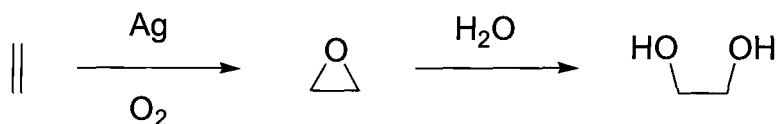
Chapter 2. Development of a Catalytic O-Atom Transfer System

2.1 Epoxidation and De-epoxidation

Epoxides are valuable intermediates in Nature, industry and synthetic organic chemistry. A variety of high oxidation state oxo metal complexes have been successfully used to generate epoxides.⁶¹ In addition, Nature has evolved metal-containing enzymes capable of either alkane hydroxylation, olefin *cis*-dihydroxylation or olefin epoxidation.⁶² The high reactivity and ease of introducing additional functionality have made epoxides among the more important and frequently used synthetic intermediates in organic chemistry.

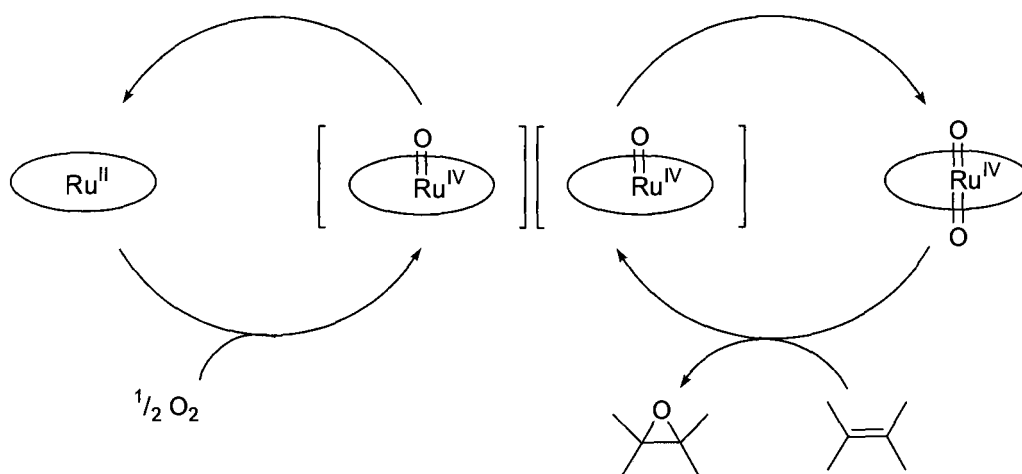
A long standing goal of homogenous catalysis has been the epoxidation of olefins with molecular oxygen. Molecular oxygen is the preferred oxidant since it is cheap, readily available and leaves no by-products. Unfortunately, relatively few examples of catalytic epoxidations using O₂ exist. The Shell process for ethylene oxide production is an excellent example of a heterogeneous process which uses molecular oxygen as the stoichiometric oxidant.⁶³ Silver is used as the catalyst but the identity of the surface oxygen species responsible for the oxidations is still unclear. The reaction is mainly restricted to ethylene as the olefin; low epoxide yields are obtained with different olefins. The production of ethylene glycol resulting from hydrolysis of the epoxide is the desired product.

Scheme 2.1



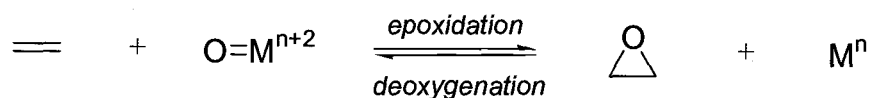
Groves et. al. have shown that ruthenium(II)-porphyrin systems will undergo oxidation with O_2 , resulting in formation of a dioxoruthenium(VI) complex.⁶⁴ Dioxo (tetramesitylporphyrinato)ruthenium(VI), $\text{Ru}(\text{TMP})(\text{O})_2$, is a powerful oxidant and was shown to be the active oxidant responsible for oxidations under aerobic conditions. The mechanism is believed to involve initial formation of an oxoruthenium(IV) intermediate, $(\text{TMP})\text{RuO}$, which then disproportionates to $\text{Re}(\text{TMP})(\text{THF})_2$ and $\text{Re}(\text{TMP})(\text{O})_2$ (Scheme 2.2). The catalytic epoxidations proceed with retention of configuration and *cis* olefins were 14.5 times more reactive than *trans* olefins. An asymmetric variation resulted in the enantioselective aerobic oxidation; unfortunately, only moderate to good enantiomeric excess (up to 73% ee for *cis*- β -methylstyrene) was obtained.⁶⁵

Scheme 2.2



Besides the interest in developing new epoxidation reagents, understanding the mechanism of olefin epoxidation is essential for designing catalysts. For example, asymmetric versions require a detailed understanding of the mechanism to make a predictive model that accounts for the stereochemical result. One powerful method of exploring any mechanism is to study the reverse reaction, which for epoxidation is epoxide deoxygenation (Scheme 2.3). As a result of the principle of microscopic reversibility, one expects that the mechanistic issues observed in C-O cleavage reactions can be applied to C-O bond forming reactions. Therefore, the deoxygenation of epoxides by metal complexes is an area of active research.

Scheme 2.3



The deoxygenation of epoxides has an assortment of practical applications. As mentioned in Ch. 1, the deoxygenation of renewable biomass feedstocks to more useful materials is a possible application. Procedures exist for converting vicinal diols in carbohydrates into epoxides⁶⁶, which can then be deoxygenated. The design of enantioselective reagents could allow the kinetic resolution of racemic epoxides.⁶⁷ In addition, the deoxygenation of epoxides is an important reaction in organic synthesis since it allows the use of the oxirane ring as a protecting group for alkenes, a means of controlling the geometry of the double bond and a method of simplifying the structure of complex molecules. The synthesis of ryanodine⁶⁸, *dl*- β -Amyrin⁶⁹ and the trichothecenes⁷⁰ all used a epoxidation / epoxide deoxygenation cycle. Unfortunately, many reagents known to deoxygenate epoxides require multi-step procedures, stoichiometric conditions, harsh reaction conditions, and complicated reagents. The loss of stereochemistry, unknown mechanisms and incompatibility with other functional groups within the substrate also plague many known methods used for epoxide deoxygenation.

Numerous homogeneous reagents are known to deoxygenate epoxides.⁷¹ One of the most powerful oxo acceptors is $\text{WCl}_2(\text{PR}_3)_3$ ($\text{R} = \text{PMe}_3, \text{PMePh}_2$).⁷²⁻⁷⁴

The tungsten(II) complex is capable of deoxygenating ketones⁷², epoxides⁷³ and sterically unencumbered phosphine oxides⁷⁴. The reduction of phosphine oxides by the tungsten(II) complex was demonstrated to be thermodynamically favored ($W^{2+}/W^{4+}=O \Delta H < -74 \text{ kcal/mol}$). However, the reduction of tertiary phosphine oxides, such as $O=PPh_3$, was shown to be kinetically unfavorable because of weak binding of the sterically bulky phosphine oxide to the metal center. Epoxides are readily deoxygenated forming equilibrium mixtures of tungsten(IV) oxo olefin complexes. The tungsten(IV) center is extremely π -basic and requires π -backbonding to the olefin to stabilize the olefin complexes.

Another example of a tungsten complex used to convert epoxides to olefins is the generation of low valent tungsten halide derivatives from WCl_6 and alkyllithium.⁷⁵ In some cases, chlorohydrins are formed as by-products and limited stereoselectivity is observed for acyclic di- and tri-substituted epoxides. Characterization of the catalytic reagents generated and the mechanism of deoxygenation were never determined.

One disadvantage of these systems, aside from not knowing the mechanism involved in WCl_6 deoxygenations, is that both require stoichiometric amounts of tungsten. The development of an oxo metal catalyst which can deoxygenate epoxides catalytically would be ideal since stoichiometric amounts of expensive and potentially toxic metal reagents would be unnecessary. Unfortunately, an approach to developing such a process presents several challenges. The properties of the complex must be adjusted, either through structural modifications, choice of

metal or oxidation state, so that O-atom transfer from the substrate to the metal complex is facile. The strength of the metal oxygen bond usually dictates whether O-atom transfer is thermodynamically favored. However, the strength of the metal oxo bond can often be a double edge sword. If the metal oxygen bond strength is too weak then O-atom transfer doesn't occur, but if the metal oxygen bond strength is too strong then the metal oxide is a thermodynamic sink and catalysis is impossible. Therefore, the properties of the metal complex must be balanced so that O-atom transfer from the substrate to the metal complex is favored, but O-atom transfer from the oxo metal complex to the stoichiometric reductant is also possible. WOCl_4 , which is formed during WCl_6 epoxide deoxygenations, contains a very strong metal oxygen bond ($\text{BDE} = 195 \text{ kcal/mol}$)⁷⁶ that is extremely difficult to reduce and would be a poor candidate to develop a catalytic process with.

2.2 Ligand Modification of Oxorhenium Complexes

Since the initial attempt to catalytically deoxygenate epoxides failed due to cluster formation, we decided to modify the ligand from pentamethylcyclopentadienyl (Cp^*) to hydridotris(3,5-dimethylpyrazolyl)borate (Tp'). Hydridotris(pyrazolyl)borate (Tp) ligands are often considered equivalents to cyclopentadienyl because they serve as anionic six-electron donors. However, electronic and steric differences exist between the two ligands.⁷⁷ The Cp ligand is a soft π donor and acceptor, while the Tp ligand is a hard nitrogen σ donor with

relatively little π donor ability. The relative size of the Tp ligand is the primary reason for its use as a Cp equivalent (Figure 2.1). The cone angle for Cp = 150° (R = H), 182° (R = Me) and Tp = 262° (R = H), 276° (R = Me). The large cone angle is often credited for the isolation of Tp analogues of highly reactive Cp compounds.⁷⁸

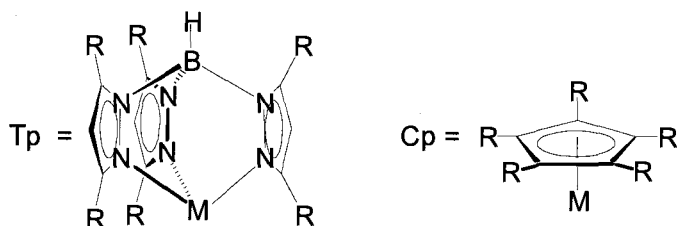


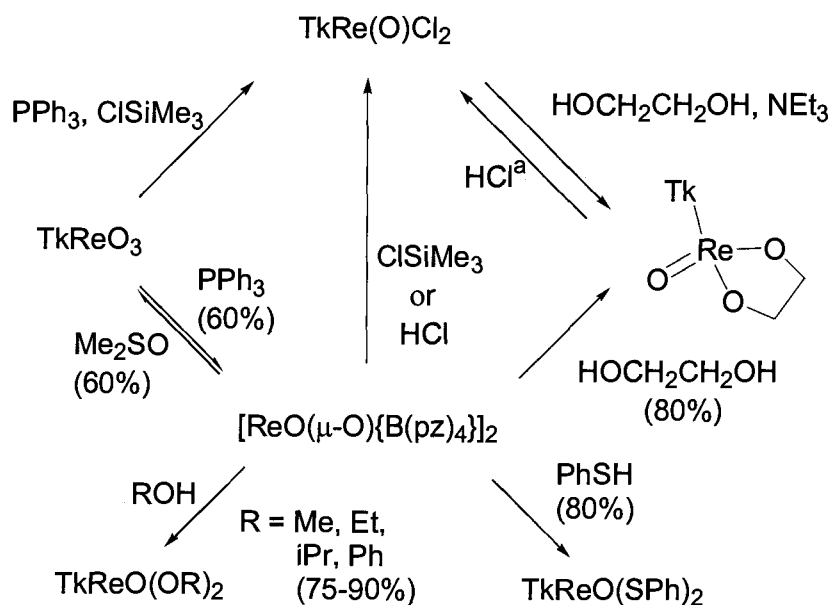
Figure 2.1 Hydridotris(pyrazolyl)borate ligand and cyclopentadienyl ligand.

Poly(pyrazolyl)borate ligands possessing different pyrazolyl ring substituents have found numerous applications in inorganic and organometallic chemistry. Although a variety of poly(pyrazolyl)borate ligands have been synthesized, the most extensively used in chemistry are the tripodal ligands HB(3,5-Me₂pz)₃ (abbreviated Tp'), HBpz₃ (abbreviated Tp) and Bpz₄ (abbreviated Tk). Rhenium oxo complexes of poly(pyrazolyl)borate ligands have been prepared by a number of groups.^{79,80,81,54}

Even though the donor and steric properties between the poly(pyrazolyl)borate ligands and pentamethylcyclopentadienyl ligand are

different, both are involved in similar oxygen atom transfer processes. The reduction of TpReO_3 and TkReO_3 with triphenylphosphine in THF resulted in the formation $[\text{ReO}(\mu\text{-O})\{\text{B}(\text{pz})_4\}]_2$ and $[\text{ReO}(\mu\text{-O})\{\text{HB}(\text{pz})_3\}]_2$ respectively.^{80b} Mass spectroscopy and ^1H NMR spectroscopy were used to verify the assignment. These results are analogous to Cp^*ReO_3 , which also forms dimeric $[(\text{Cp}^*\text{ReO})_2(\mu\text{-O})_2]$ after reduction with triphenylphosphine (See Ch. 1). The reactivity of the tetrakis(pyrazolyl)borate oxo bridged dimer is shown in Scheme 2.4. Similar to $[(\text{Cp}^*\text{ReO})_2(\mu\text{-O})_2]$, $[\text{ReO}(\mu\text{-O})\{\text{B}(\text{pz})_4\}]_2$ reacts with a variety of reagents to form a series of monomeric rhenium(V) compounds.

Scheme 2.4



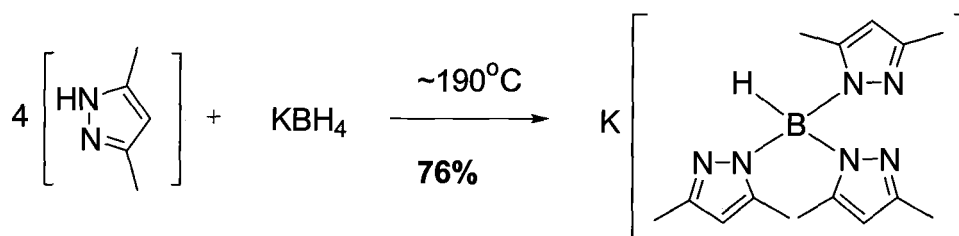
a: ref. 82

Identical kinetic behavior was observed for cycloreversion of hydridotris(3,5-dimethylpyrazolyl)boratorhenium(V) diolates compared to diolate cycloreversions containing the pentamethylcyclopentadienyl ligand.⁸³ The only difference discerned was higher activation enthalpies by 2-4 kcal/mol, while the entropies of activation and relative reactivity remained the same. In addition, the oxidation of strained alkenes by $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ occurred, indicating cycloreversion and oxidation were close to thermoneutral. Obviously, ligand modification from Cp^* to Tp' had a relatively minor effect on the mechanism of diolate cycloreversion.

2.3 Catalytic Deoxygenation of Epoxides Mediated by $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$

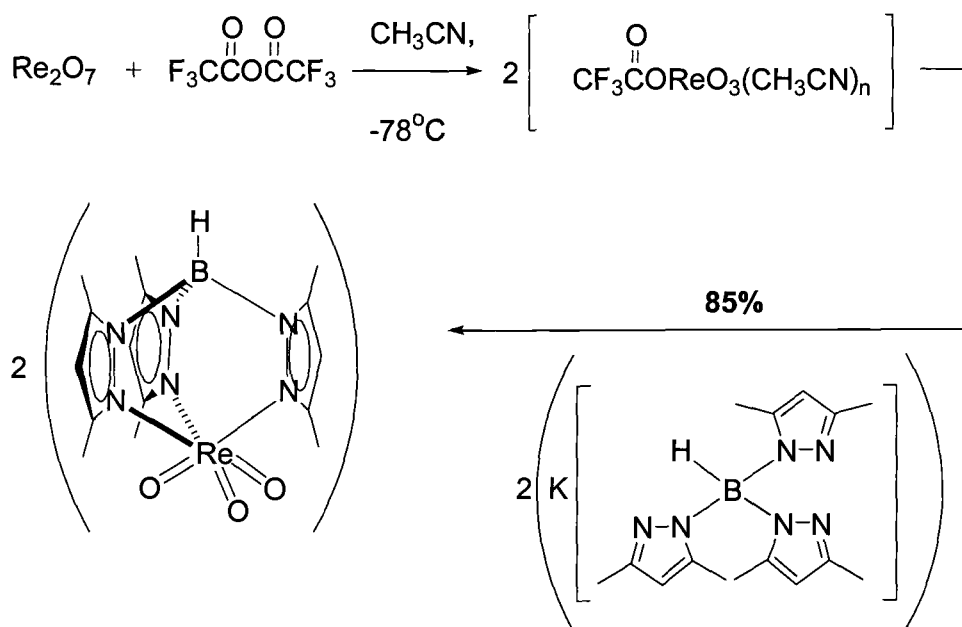
The large cone angle of the Tp' ligand was expected to inhibit cluster formation that killed catalysis using Cp^*ReO_3 in the epoxide deoxygenation reaction. In addition, the bulkier Tp' ligand was predicted to suppress formation of the dimeric bridged oxo compound $[\text{LReO}]_2(\mu\text{-O})_2$ that resulted from reduction of LReO_3 with triphenylphosphine ($\text{L} = \text{Cp}^*, \text{Tp}$ or Tk). Since fragmentation of the dimer to the reactive monomer LReO_2 was a requirement for oxygen atom transfer,⁵⁶ disfavoring dimerization should result in an increase in catalytic turnover by ensuring the catalytically active species remains the predominant species in solution.

Scheme 2.5



Besides developing an efficient catalytic process of deoxygenating epoxides, the application of the process to organic synthesis is also a goal. One particular disadvantage of many reagents used to deoxygenate epoxides is the complicated synthesis of the reagent. Scheme 2.5 demonstrates the simple one-step process for generating potassium hydridotris(3,5-dimethylpyrazolyl) borate, while Scheme 2.6 shows the easy synthesis of the starting reagent $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$. The conditions used to generate KTp' are similar to the conditions reported by Trofimenko et al. for the synthesis of KTp .⁸⁴ The generation of $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ requires the initial formation of the mixed anhydride $\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{ReO}_3$ followed then by the addition of KTp' . Re_2O_7 can be used directly, but the mixed anhydride route prevents losing half of the rhenium as perrhenate.^{79b} Overall, generation of $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ is a simple process that results in high yields of product.

Scheme 2.6



The reaction of 1-5 mole percent of Tp^*ReO_3 with epoxide and triphenylphosphine (1:1 stoichiometry) in benzene resulted in efficient catalytic epoxide deoxygenation (Scheme 2.7).⁸⁵ The reaction conditions involved heating the sample in a tube sealed under vacuum at $75\text{-}105^\circ\text{C}$. The reduced rhenium(V) species Tp^*ReO_2 , analogous to the Cp^*ReO_3 species seen in equilibrium with $(\text{Cp}^*\text{ReO})_2(\mu\text{-O})_2$, reacts with epoxides to form alkene and Tp^*ReO_3 . Triethyl phosphite was likewise an excellent stoichiometric reducing agent. Thermodynamically the reaction between epoxides and triphenylphosphine is highly favored ($\Delta G^\circ \approx -55 \text{ kcal/mol}$)⁸⁶, but the uncatalyzed reaction requires elevated temperatures (200°C) and results in inversion of configuration.⁸⁷ No

alkene formation was observed after heating a sample for 24h at 75°C in the absence of any rhenium compounds. In addition, most reactions catalyzed by $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ were stereospecific with preservation of the relative stereochemistry about the C-C bond of the epoxide. The deoxygenation of *trans*-butene oxide resulted in minor amounts of *cis*-2-butene after the reaction was run to > 95% completion. The deliberate addition of water was shown to inhibit catalytic turnover; predrying the epoxide, internal standard, and triphenylphosphine in d_6 -benzene over CaH_2 enhanced the turnover frequency. Efficient catalysis was also observed in THF, ether and acetonitrile.

Scheme 2.7

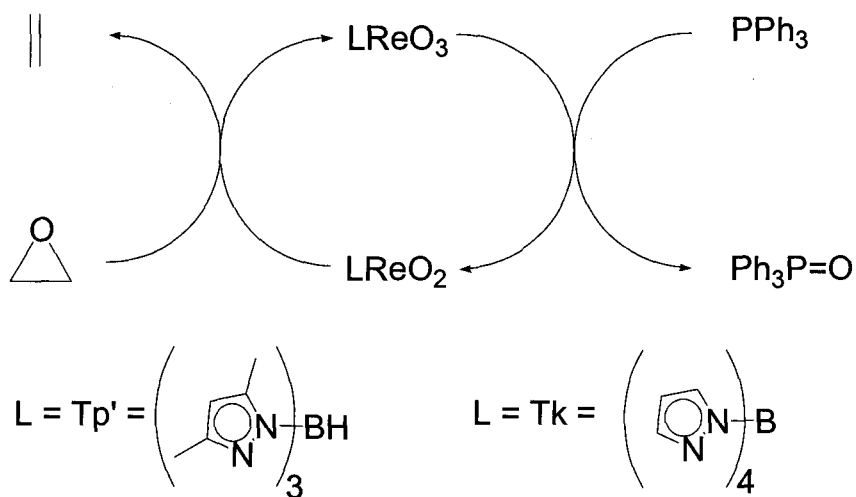


Table 2.1 shows the catalytic deoxygenation of various epoxides using $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ (5 mol %) / PPh_3 in benzene- d_6 . The relative reactivities demonstrate the

effect of electronic and steric structure on the deoxygenation process. Terminal alkenes form faster than internal alkenes and *cis*-alkenes form faster than *trans*-alkenes. More substituted epoxides are deoxygenated less readily, except for isobutylene oxide which deoxygenated faster than propylene oxide. In addition, aryl substituents increase the reaction rate compared to alkyl substituents. Epoxides with electron-withdrawing substituents, such as epoxytrifluoropropane, reacted faster. 7-Oxabicyclo[4.1.0]heptan-2-one was the fastest of all the epoxides tested, resulting in greater than 95% conversion by NMR in less than 25h at 75°C. No evidence of catalyst deactivation occurred compared to the Cp* compound, where conproportionation of the reduced and oxidized intermediates resulted in the formation of an inactive tetranuclear cluster. Furthermore, epoxides which reacted slowly were shown to go to > 95% completion if given enough time. This was demonstrated by heating samples to 105°C for greater than 48h.

Table 2.1 Catalytic deoxygenation of epoxides with $\text{Tp}^*\text{ReO}_3/\text{PPh}_3$ in benzene- d_6 .


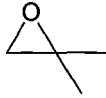

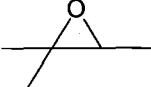
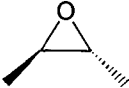
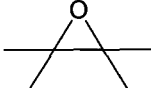
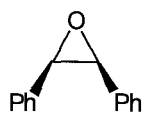
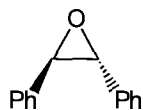
 2-1				 2-2			
time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %	time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %
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0.5	1800	75	<5	0.5	1800	75	<5
2	7200	75	11	2	7200	75	13
5	18000	75	19	5	18000	75	21
25	90000	75	38	25	90000	75	54
100	360000	75	55	100	360000	75	82
+48	>172800	105	>95 ^a	+48	>172800	105	>95 ^a
 2-3				 2-4			
time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %	time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %
0	0	75	0	0	0	75	0
0.5	1800	75	<5	0.5	1800	75	<5
2	7200	75	<5	2	7200	75	<5
5	18000	75	<5	5	18000	75	<5
25	90000	75	23	25	90000	75	10
100	360000	75	26	100	360000	75	16
>48	>172800	105	>95 ^a	>48	>172800	105	>95 ^a
 2-5				 2-6			
time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %	time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %
0	0	75	0	0	0	75	0
0.5	1800	75	<5	0.5	1800	75	<5
2	7200	75	<5	2	7200	75	<5
5	18000	75	<5	5	18000	75	<5
25	90000	75	<5	25	90000	75	<5
100	360000	75	<5	100	360000	75	<5
220	792000	75	<5	220	792000	75	<5
340	1224000	75	14	340	1224000	75	<5
>48	>172800	105	>95 ^a	Incompatible			

Table 2.1 Continued



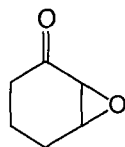
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time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %
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2	7200	75	23
5	18000	75	35
25	90000	75	87
100	360000	75	>95



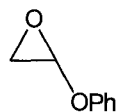
2-9

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2	7200	75	---
5	18000	75	9
25	90000	75	10
100	360000	75	14
+48	>172800	105	>95 ^a



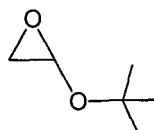
2-11

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0.5	1800	75	8
2	7200	75	32
5	18000	75	61
25	90000	75	>95



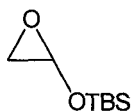
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time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %
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2	7200	75	<5
5	18000	75	<5
25	90000	75	16
100	360000	75	33
+48	>172800	105	>95 ^a



2-10

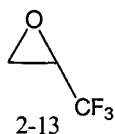
time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %
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0.5	1800	75	<5
2	7200	75	<5
5	18000	75	<5
25	90000	75	15
100	360000	75	38
+48	>172800	105	>95 ^a



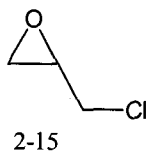
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0.5	1800	75	<5
2	7200	75	<5
5	18000	75	<5
25	90000	75	16
100	360000	75	39
+48	>172800	105	>95 ^a

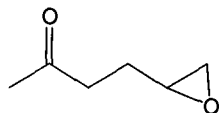
Table 2.1 Continued



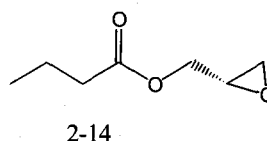
time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %
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0.5	1800	75	<5
2	7200	75	<5
5	18000	75	5
25	90000	75	25
100	360000	75	63
+48	>172800	105	>95 ^a



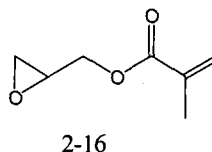
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25	90000	75	13
100	360000	75	29
+48	>172800	105	>95 ^a



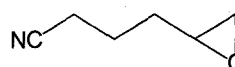
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5	18000	75	<5
25	90000	75	<5
100	360000	75	6
196	705600	75	12
223	802800	75	15
+48	>172800	105	>95 ^a



time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %
0	0	75	0
0.5	1800	75	<5
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5	18000	75	<5
25	90000	75	16
100	360000	75	39
+48	>172800	105	>95 ^a

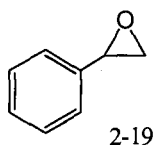


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5	18000	75	<5
25	90000	75	13
100	360000	75	30
+48	>172800	105	>95 ^a

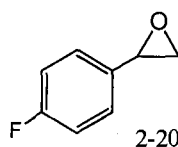


time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %
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5	18000	75	<5
25	90000	75	<5
100	360000	75	18
+48	>172800	105	>95 ^a

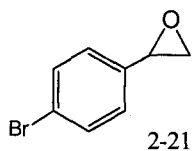
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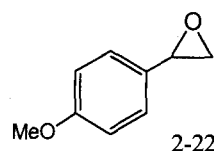
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579	2084400	75	73



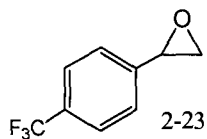
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22	79200	75	42
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654	2354400	75	>95



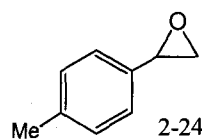
time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %
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23.5	84600	75	36
121.5	437400	75	49
586	2109600	75	>95



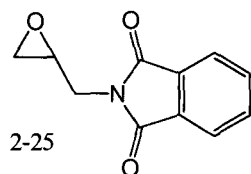
time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %
0	0	75	0
3.5	12600	75	29
31.5	113400	75	39
124.5	448200	75	55



time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %
0	0	75	0
2.5	9000	75	39
21	75600	75	48
112.5	405000	75	67
303	1090800	75	>95



time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %
0	0	75	0
3.5	12600	75	30
31.5	113400	75	38
124.5	448200	75	48



time, hr	time, secs	temp., °C	Conversion %
0	0	75	0
0.5	1800	75	9
2	7200	75	9
5	18000	75	11
25	90000	75	16
100	360000	75	28
+48	>172800	105	>95 ^a

^a = Samples were heated for at least 100 h at 75°C before being heated for at least +48 h at 105°C.

2.4 Functional Group Interference and Tolerance

Functional group interference was observed for some substrates. Nitro groups resulted in catalyst deactivation presumably by reoxidizing the reduced rhenium(V) species back to Tp^*ReO_3 . Hydroxyl-containing epoxides were also not tolerated, but protecting the alcohol as the *tert*-butyldimethylsilyl ether (**2-12**) resulted in efficient catalysis (see Table 2.1). Surprisingly, 2,3-dimethyl-butene oxide failed to be deoxygenated, indicating the point at which steric interactions prevent catalysis. However, a variety of functional groups were tolerated. Epoxides with pendant ethers (**2-8** and **2-10**) and silyl ethers (**2-12**) were easily deoxygenated with conversions ranging from 33-39% after 100h at 75°C. Epoxides containing esters (**2-14** and **2-16**) and halogens (**2-13** and **2-15**) resulted in excellent conversion of deoxygenated product. An increase in turnover frequency was observed for epoxides conjugated with sp^2 systems, such as a carbonyl or phenyl group. For example, *cis*-stilbene oxide and 7-oxabicyclo[4.1.0]heptan-2-one were the most readily deoxygenated epoxides. Even nitrile substituted epoxides (**2-18**) were readily deoxygenated. 5,6-Epoxy-2-hexanone was eventually deoxygenated, but required a longer reaction time. Possible coordination of the carbonyl oxygen to an empty coordination site on the metal could be competing with epoxide ligation and would explain the slower rate. Although free amines were not tested, because of expected formation of imido complexes, an epoxide containing the phthalimide group (**2-25**) as a protecting group was easily

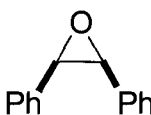
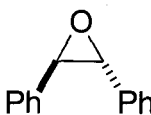

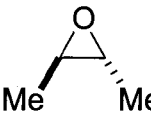
deoxygenated. Substituted styrene oxides (2-20 thru 2-24) were all compatible and an increase in turnover frequency was observed with both electron-donating and electron-withdrawing substituents.

2.5 Differences between $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ and TkReO_3

A comparison between tetrakis(pyrazolylborato)rhenium trioxide (TkReO_3) and $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ was performed to determine the advantage of using the Tp' ligand (Table 2.2). Catalytic turnover was seen for reactions catalyzed by TkReO_3 , but the rate is much slower compared to $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ catalyzed reactions. For instance, the deoxygenation of *cis*-stilbene oxide at 105°C was complete (>95%) in 1.5 hrs for $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$, while TkReO_3 had only deoxygenated 50% after 73 hrs. The low reactivity of TkReO_3 is attributed to formation of dimeric $[\text{ReO}(\mu\text{-O})\{\text{B}(\text{pz})_4\}]_2$ from the dioxorhenium(V) intermediate (See scheme 2.4).^{80b} Fragmentation of the dimer to the reactive dioxorhenium(V) intermediate (LReO_2) was shown for $[(\text{Cp}^*\text{ReO})_2(\mu\text{-O})_2]$ to be necessary for O atom transfer.⁵⁶ Since the steric bulk measured by cone angle is smaller for the Tk ligand, the dimeric form would be expected to be more stable than the dimeric form of the Tp' derivative. A decrease in rate was expected for TkReO_3 since the reactive species (LReO_2) is removed from solution because of dimerization. In addition, some trans/cis isomerization of trans-stilbene oxide was observed using the TkReO_3 catalyst. Whether a cationic

or radical mechanism or even some adventitious acidic impurities might be responsible for the isomerization was not determined.

Table 2.2 Reaction of epoxides with catalytic $\text{LReO}_3/\text{PPh}_3$ ($\text{L} = \text{Tp}', \text{Tk}$).

Epoxide	Catalyst	Time, hr	Temp., °C	Alkene Yield, %
	Tp'	1.5	105	>95
	Tk	73	105	46
	Tp'	1.5	105	18
	Tk	105	105	tr
	Tp'	1.5	105	63
	Tk	120	105	tr
	Tp'	1.5	105	12
	Tk	120	105	0

2.6 Preparative Scale

The reaction can easily be run on a preparative scale. 75.0 mg of $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ (0.14 mmol), 884 mg of PPh_3 (3.37 mmol) and a magnetic stir bar were added to a 250 mL glass bomb. 30 mL of dry benzene was then vacuum transferred into the bomb, followed by the syringe addition of 0.62 mL of 1,2-epoxydodecane (2.82

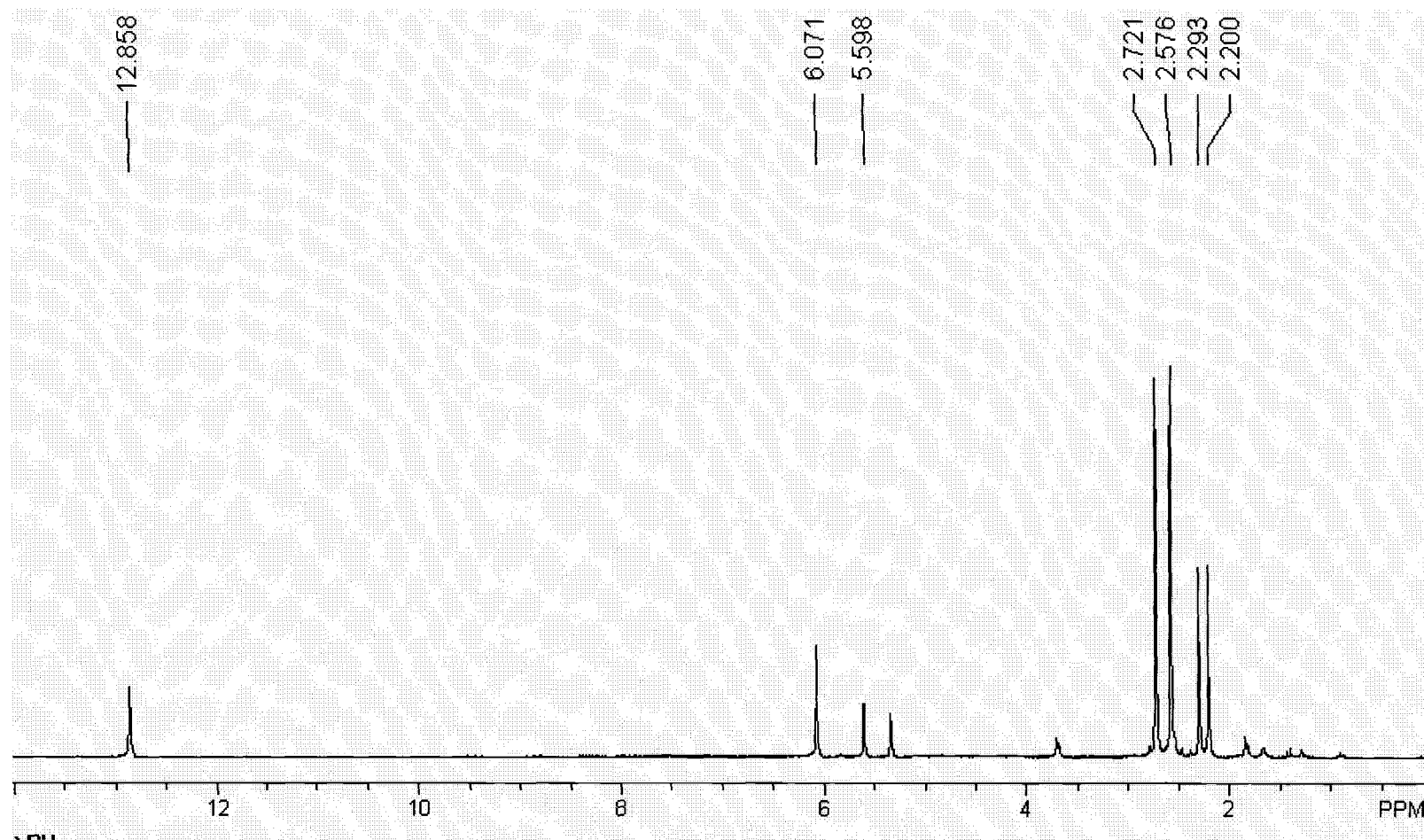
mmol). The mixture was stirred under vacuum and heated to 85°C for 86 h. An aliquot was then analyzed by NMR to ensure no epoxide remained. Column chromatography on silica gel gave 447 mg of 1-dodecene (2.7 mmol, 94%). Distillation can also be used for to purify the alkene instead of chromatography though on a 5 mmol scale holdup in the short path apparatus led to a decreased yield (2.6 mmol, 64%). The simple preparative procedure demonstrates the synthetic utility of using $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ to deoxygenate epoxides.

2.7 ($\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}(\text{OH})_2$) versus ($\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$)

The sterically bulkier Tp' ligand was predicted to suppress formation of the dimeric bridged oxo compound $[\text{LReO}]_2(\mu\text{-O})_2$ that resulted from reduction of LReO_3 with triphenylphosphine when $\text{L} = \text{Cp}^*$, Tp or Tk . Reduction of $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ with triphenylphosphine or triethylphosphite in THF at room temperature resulted in the formation of a green solution over 2-3 days. At elevated temperatures the reduction of $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ is extremely facile and the disappearance of insoluble $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ is complete in a couple of hours. Following the reaction in a sealed NMR tube, the formation of $\text{Ph}_3\text{P}=\text{O}$ was apparent along with the formation of a C_s symmetrical rhenium species. Purification of this C_s rhenium species was achieved by two methods: (1) column chromatography on silica gel using nitrogen purged 1% acetone in dichloromethane; and (2) using polymer supported PPh_3 followed by filtration and precipitation of the product using hexanes under N_2 or Ar. Both

procedures led to the isolation of an air sensitive baby blue powder. The ^1H NMR spectrum matched the signals previously observed in the crude mixture. Initially, we believed we had isolated the monomer, $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_2$, which would also exhibit C_s symmetry. However, closer examination of the ^1H NMR showed, in addition to the signals corresponding to the Tp' ligand, a 2-H singlet at 12.8ppm (Figure 2.2). This signal disappeared upon exchange with D_2O . Furthermore, the addition of < 0.5 equivalents of D_2O resulted in a second signal 15Hz upfield. In the IR spectrum, a strong oxo stretch at 966 cm^{-1} (compared to 908 cm^{-1} for $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$) and a broad O-H stretch at 3335 cm^{-1} was observed. The increase in frequency for the oxo stretch demonstrates how competition of the oxo groups to π bond into the empty d orbitals weakens each of the $\text{Re}=\text{O}$ bonds. Removal of an oxo group reduces competition and increases the $\text{Re}=\text{O}$ bond strength. The oxo stretch for the deuterated species resulting from complete exchange with D_2O is shifted to a higher frequency at 970 cm^{-1} . The substitution of deuterium should increase the frequency of the oxo stretch since deuterium will be less likely to H-bond therefore strengthening the rhenium-oxo bond. The FAB mass spectrum shows a major peak at $m/z = 516$ and a smaller but possibly significant peak at $m/z = 533$. The weak peak at $m/z = 533$ ($\text{Tp}'^{187}\text{ReO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$) is believed to be the molecular ion peak, while the major peak at $m/z = 516$ ($\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_2$) results from loss of water.

Figure 2.2 ^1H NMR spectrum in CD_2Cl_2 of $(\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}(\text{OH})_2)$ or $(\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O})$.



These results led us to propose the compound was either an oxo bis-hydroxide ($\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}(\text{OH})_2$) or the hydrate of the monomeric dioxo complex ($\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$) (Figure 2.3). Both isomers would be consistent with the spectroscopic data presented. However, the magnitude of the 15 Hz upfield shift that resulted after the addition of < 0.5 equivalents of D_2O was originally believed to be evidence supporting the hydrate structure. The rationale comes from the fact that only two bonds separate hydrogen and deuterium in the hydrate complex compared to four bonds in the oxo bis-hydroxide complex. Therefore, the large value observed would be more consistent with the hydrate structure. However, if H-bonding occurred between one hydroxyl hydrogen to the second hydroxyl group containing the deuteride then a 15 Hz shift can be rationalized for the oxo bis-hydroxide complex (See below for evidence of H-bonding). Further experiments that were performed but resulted in inconclusive results include cooling the sample to -83°C and heating the sample to 50°C . If the compound were the hydrate then cooling the sample would slow down, at least on the NMR time scale, the rapid interconversion of H-bonding occurring between the two terminal oxo groups and the hydrogens found on the coordinated water molecule. Conversely, if the compound were the oxo bis-hydroxide complex, then collapse of symmetry from C_s to C_{3v} would be expected upon heating since proton exchange should be rapid at elevated temperatures. Unfortunately, no dynamic behavior (coalescence of signals) was observed upon heating or cooling the compound. Even though H-D exchange is rapid, as evident by the immediate disappearance of the signal at 12.8

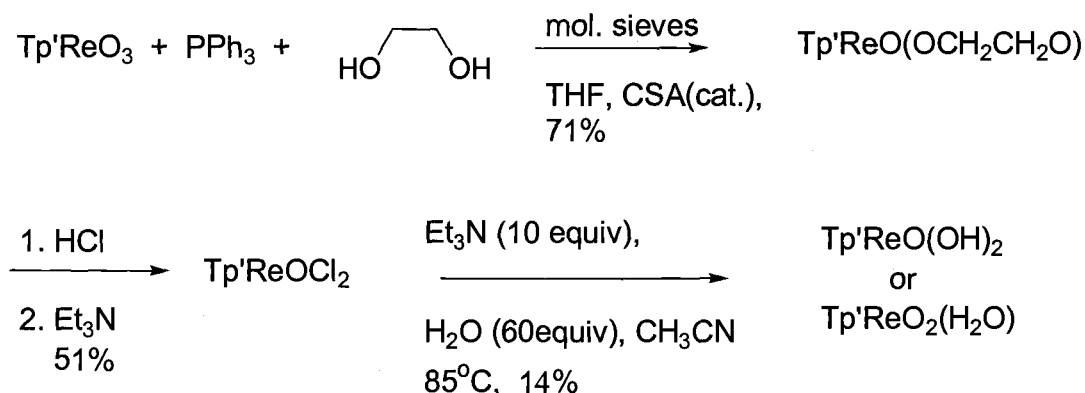
ppm following the addition of D₂O, the compound is also not acidic indicating substantial H-bonding within the complex. For example, addition of bases such as pyridine and *N,N,N',N'*-tetramethyl-1,8-naphthalenediamine had no effect on the ¹H NMR spectra.

The source of the water that adds to Tp'ReO₂ has remained elusive; all reagents and solvents were rigorously dried before use. One possible source could be Tp'ReO₃ which requires a water rinse to remove ionic by-products formed during its synthesis (see Scheme 2.6). Retention of water by Tp'ReO₃ is quite possible; efforts to removal the water of hydration by heating Tp'ReO₃ to > 150°C overnight under vacuum (0.01 mbar) did not prevent the formation of either the hydrate or oxo bis-hydroxide. Attempts to physically (azeotropic distillation) or chemically (N,N'-diisopropyldicarbodimide, CaH₂) dehydrate the hydrate or oxo bis-hydroxide led to decomposition.

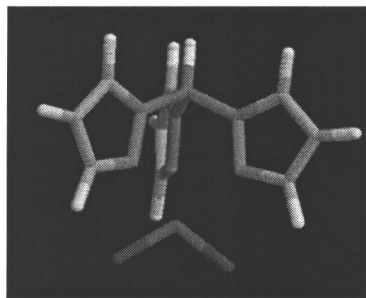
There is however evidence in favor of the oxo bis-hydroxide complex. The following evidence supports the rhenium(V) compound to be Tp'Re(O)(OH)₂: (1) A similarity between the visible spectrum ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 606 \text{ nm}$) of the rhenium(V) compound to other Tp'Re(O)(alkoxide)₂ compounds exists. (2) Hydrolysis of the oxodichloride Tp'Re(O)Cl₂ with H₂O and triethylamine to form Tp'Re(O)(OH)₂ is analogous to bisalkoxide LRe(O)(OR)₂ formation from alcohols and triethylamine. (3) Computational modeling predicts the oxo bis-hydroxide is 13 kcal/mol more stable than the hydrate.⁸⁵ (4) The chemical behavior of the rhenium(V) compound towards ethanol and chlorinated solvents.

An independent synthesis of the rhenium(V) compound was performed starting from $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ (Scheme 2.8). Treatment of the trioxo complex with ethylene glycol and triphenylphosphine under acidic conditions yielded the ethane diolate $\text{Tp}'\text{Re}(\text{O})(\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{O})$. The rhenium(V) diolate was then cleaved using HCl and triethylamine giving the oxodichloride $\text{Tp}'\text{Re}(\text{O})\text{Cl}_2$. Refluxing $(\text{HBpz}_3)\text{Re}(\text{O})\text{Cl}_2$ with an alcohol and triethylamine in acetonitrile had already been shown to replace the chlorides with alkoxide ligands, giving bisalkoxide complexes $(\text{HBpz}_3)\text{Re}(\text{O})(\text{OR})_2$ ($\text{R} = \text{Me}, \text{Et}, ^i\text{Pr}, ^n\text{Bu}, \text{CH}_2\text{Ph}$).⁸⁸ The replacement of water for the alcohol resulted in a compound identical to that formed by phosphine reduction of $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$. One might predict based on the reactivity of alcohols and the products formed that reaction with water would form a compound analogous in structure. Therefore, the oxo bis-hydroxide would be the most reasonable structure.

Scheme 2.8



High level computational modeling of Tp'Re(O)(OH)_2 and $\text{Tp'Re(O)}_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})$ were performed at the B3LYP/LACVP** level to determine which isomer was the species generated by phosphine reduction of Tp'ReO_3 .⁸⁵ Both compounds converged to reasonable ground state structures and were determined to be true minima on the potential energy surface by the absence of an imaginary frequency. The energies and structures calculated for Tp'Re(O)(OH)_2 and $\text{Tp'Re(O)}_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})$ are in Figure 2.3 along with the dioxo complex Tp'ReO_2 . A comparison between the nonmethylated Tp ligand and the Tp' ligand was made to determine if the methyls had an electronic or steric impact on the relative energies of the two compounds. Structurally the two compounds were similar when comparing Tp versus Tp' and only small differences in energies were observed. Overall, the oxo bis-hydroxide is lower in energy by 13 kcal/mol (14.5 kcal/mol after zero point energy corrections) than the hydrate for the Tp' containing complexes. Both structures contain some H-bonding to either the terminal oxo ligands in the hydrate or to the second hydroxyl group in the oxo bis-hydroxide. As previously mentioned, H-bonding of one hydroxyl group to the other hydroxyl oxygen can account for the large 15 Hz isotopic NMR shift if the rhenium(V) compound is the oxo bis-hydroxide.



E (L = Tp): -932.0253 H

E (L = Tp'): -1167.9573 H

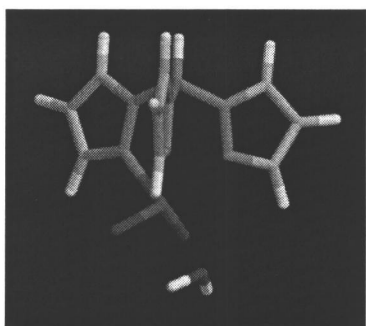
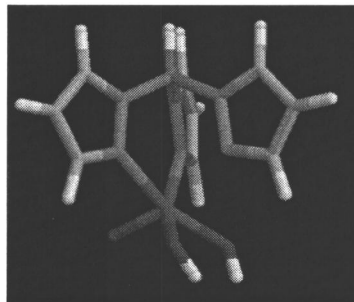
E H₂O: -76.4197 H

E_{rel} = 0 (Tp and Tp')

E (L = Tp): -1008.4781 H

E (L = Tp'): -1244.4151 H

E_{rel}: -20.8 (-23.0)* kcal/mol (Tp)
-23.9 (-19.2)* kcal/mol (Tp')



E (L = Tp): -1008.4561 H

E (L = Tp'): -1244.3929 H

E_{rel}: -6.9 (-20.0)* kcal/mol (Tp)
-10.0 (-4.7)* kcal/mol (Tp')

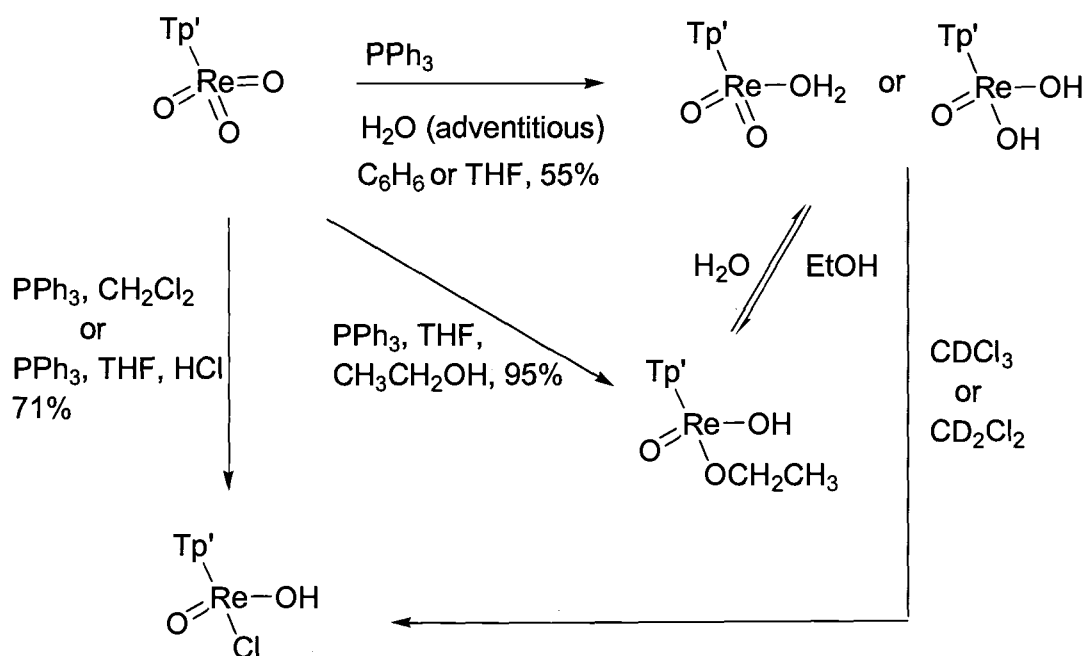
Figure 2.3 Optimized structures and energies of Tp'ReO₂, Tp'Re(O)(OH)₂ and Tp'ReO₂(H₂O).

The final piece of evidence supporting the oxo bis-hydroxide is the chemical reactivity of the complex in different solvents. The reduction of Tp'ReO₃ with phosphines in chlorinated solvents yielded Tp'Re(O)(OH)Cl.⁸⁹ Tp'Re(O)(OH)Cl is a known compound and is readily identified in the ¹H NMR spectrum by its C₁-symmetry and by a deuterium-exchangeable signal at 16.53 ppm attributed to the hydroxyl hydrogen (Scheme 2.9). The IR spectrum shows a weak

O-H absorption at 3448 cm^{-1} , a B-H stretch at 2546 cm^{-1} and a characteristic $\text{Re}=\text{O}$ band at 971 cm^{-1} . The exact form of the chloride source is still unknown but may be HCl resulting from photodecomposition of the chlorinated solvent. The deliberate addition of HCl during the reduction of the trioxo complex in THF led to exclusive formation of the hydroxo chloride complex in 71% yield. NMR samples containing the oxo bis-hydroxide complex in chlorinated solvents were also slowly converted to the hydroxo chloride complex over time. Hydroxylic solvents, such as ethanol and methanol, resulted in hydroxo alkoxide complexes Tp'Re(O)(OH)(OR) ($\text{R} = \text{Me, Et}$) after chromatography (Scheme 2.9). Both were identified by ^1H NMR but Tp'ReO(OH)(OEt) was further characterized by IR, mass spectroscopy and ^{13}C NMR. The ^1H NMR spectrum of Tp'ReO(OH)(OEt) exhibits a diagnostic C_1 -symmetrical pattern for the Tp' signals as well as a diagnostic signal corresponding to the diastereotopic CH_2 protons of the ethoxy ligand. The FAB mass spectrum for Tp'ReO(OH)(OEt) shows a major peak at $m/z = 516$ (Tp'ReO_2) and a weak peak at $m/z = 562$ ($\text{Tp'ReO}_2 + \text{EtOH}$). The purification of the ethoxide complex was extremely difficult for a variety of reasons. First, Tp'ReO(OH)(OEt) , similar to Tp'Re(O)(OH)_2 , will oxidize to the trioxide on exposure to air. Second, equilibrium amounts of Tp'Re(O)(OH)_2 always form if any adventitious water is present. For example, small amounts of oxo bis-hydroxide would always coelute with the ethoxide complex during chromatography. Third, a large excess of ethanol would result in the formation of the bis-ethoxide complex^{80b} which would coelute with the ethoxide complex. Overall, formation of the ethoxide complex

and hydroxyl chloride complex are more consistent with the oxo bis-hydroxide structure than with the hydrate. Relatively few examples of hydrated rhenium oxo complexes are known,⁹⁰ compared to the large number of reported alkoxide and hydroxo rhenium complexes.^{45,88-89,91}

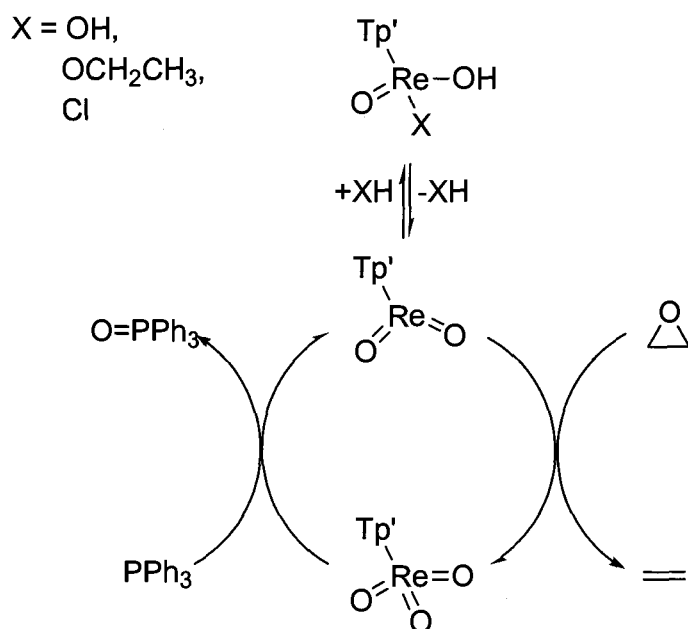
Scheme 2.9



$\text{Tp}'\text{Re}(\text{O})(\text{OH})_2$ and $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}(\text{OH})(\text{OEt})$ were both equally effective catalysts for epoxide deoxygenation. The pseudo-zero order rate constants for *cis*-stilbene oxide deoxygenation at 75°C were $k_{\text{obs}} = 1.45 \times 10^{-6}$ M/s for $\text{Tp}'\text{Re}(\text{O})(\text{OH})_2$ and $k_{\text{obs}} = 1.26 \times 10^{-6}$ M/s for $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}(\text{OH})(\text{OEt})$ (Figure 2.4). Both catalysts were shown to deoxygenate *cis*-stilbene oxide to > 95% conversion in less than 35hrs at

75°C. $\text{Tp}'\text{Re}(\text{O})(\text{OH})\text{Cl}$ was a poor catalyst for deoxygenation of epoxides; only 14% conversion of *cis*-stilbene oxide to *cis*-stilbene was observed after 45 hrs at 75°C. These results confirm that loss of water, ethanol or HCl to form the reactive dioxo $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_2$ is a necessary preequilibrium process for O atom transfer (Scheme 2.10). Consistent with loss of water being a necessary preequilibrium process was that water was determined to inhibit catalytic turnover. The deliberate addition of 10 μL of H_2O decreased the turnover frequency by almost half.

Scheme 2.10



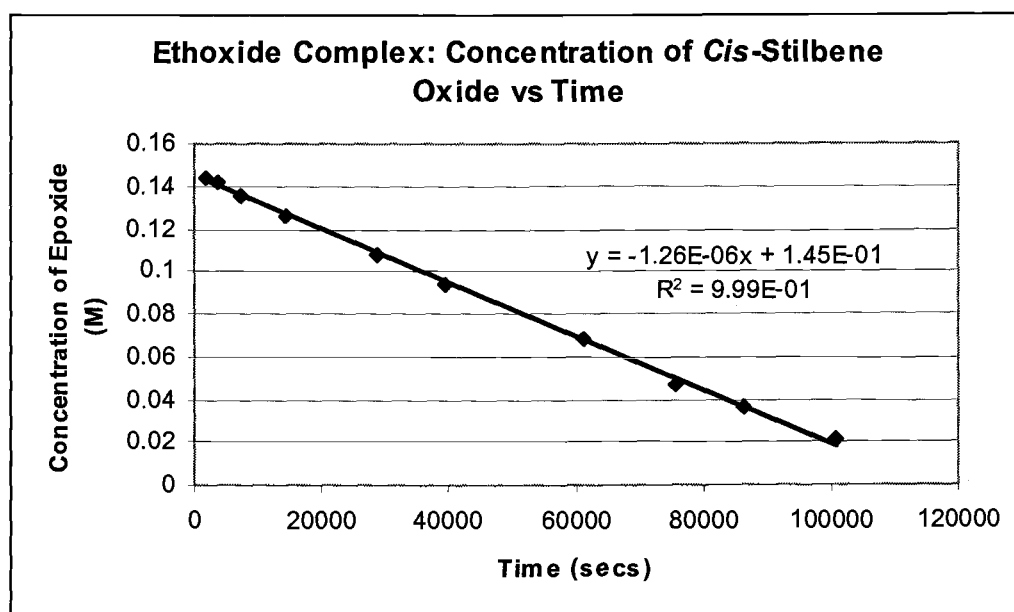
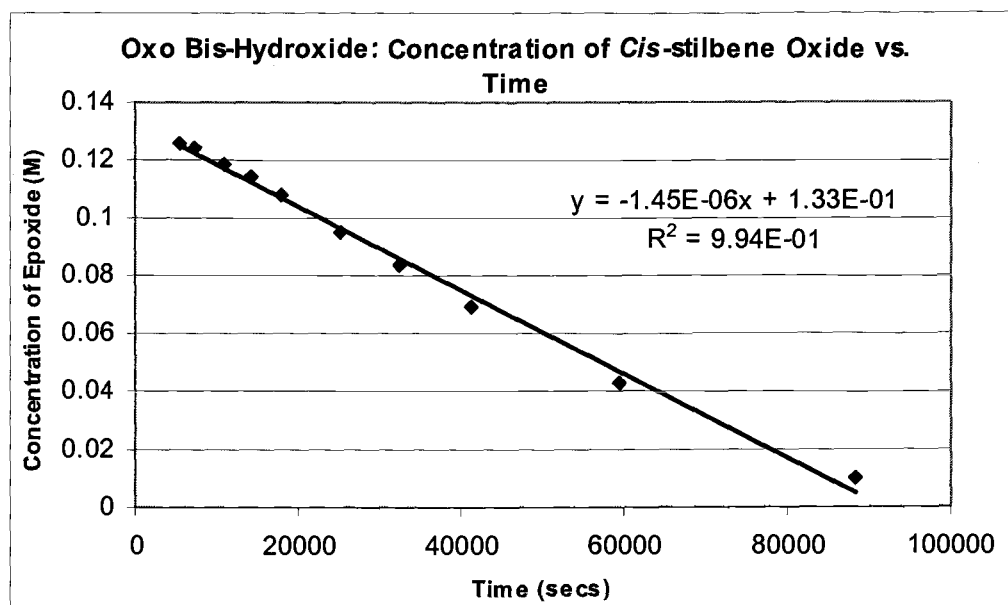
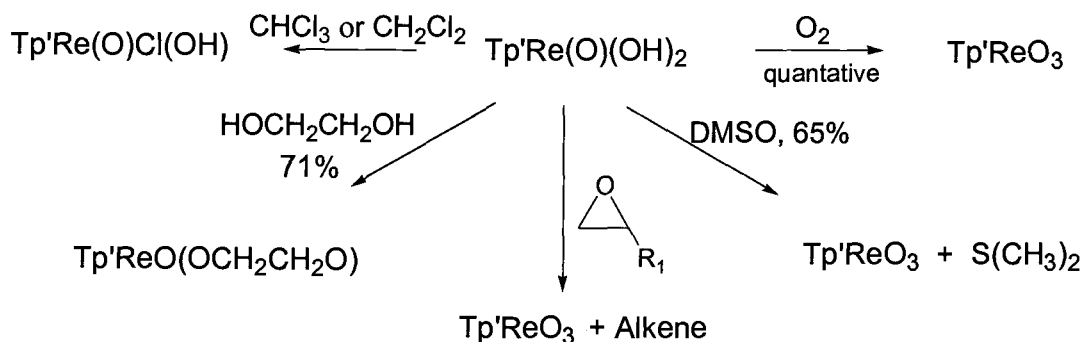


Figure 2.4 Concentration of epoxide versus time plots for $\text{Tp}^*\text{Re}(\text{O})(\text{OH})_2$ and $\text{Tp}^*\text{Re}(\text{O})(\text{OH})(\text{OEt})$.

2.8 Stoichiometric Deoxygenations

The chemical reactivity of the oxo bis-hydroxide complex is very similar to $[(L^*ReO)_2(\mu-O)_2]$ ($L = Cp^*, Tp, Tk$).^{55,56,80b} Besides catalytically deoxygenating epoxides, it also deoxygenates sulfoxides and reacts with vicinal diols to form diolate complexes (Scheme 2.11). The oxo bis-hydroxide complex is also effective at stoichiometric deoxygenations of epoxides. Similar to the catalytic reactions involving in-situ reduction of $Tp'ReO_3$, the stoichiometric reactions resulted in stereospecific formation of alkenes. Stoichiometric reactions were run at 105°C in d_3 -acetonitrile sealed in a NMR tube under vacuum. *Cis*-alkenes form faster than *trans*-alkenes and aryl groups enhance the reactions compared to alkyl groups. The relative order of reactivity is *cis*-stilbene oxide > *trans*-stilbene oxide > styrene oxide > *cis*-butene oxide > *trans*-butene oxide. Oddly enough, the placement of *cis*-butene oxide and *trans*-stilbene oxide have switched compared to the catalytic process. The reaction is difficult to push to completion because a build up of water, which is a by-product of the stoichiometric reaction, drives the equilibrium towards the oxo bis-hydroxide rather than the reactive dioxo complex. Once again, hydroxyl and nitro containing epoxides interfered with catalysis.

Scheme 2.11



2.9 Conclusions

In situ reduction of Tp'ReO_3 with triphenylphosphine or triethylphosphite leads to a reactive rhenium(V) species that catalytically deoxygenates epoxides at 75-105°C. The reaction is stereospecific, except for *trans*- and *cis*-butene oxide which formed minor amounts of the opposite isomer. A variety of different functional groups were tolerated and epoxides that reacted slowly could be pushed to greater than 95% conversion. The reaction can also be run effectively on a preparative scale indicating the synthetic utility of the reaction. Furthermore, the absence of clustering processes shows how simple changes in the choice of ligand can have a major influence on the design of the catalytic cycle. Changing the ligand also suppressed formation of dimeric $[\text{LReO}]_2(\mu\text{-O})_2$ which is generated during the reduction of LReO_3 . Formation of the dimer was shown to be a detriment to catalysis by comparing reactions catalyzed by TkReO_3 and Tp'ReO_3 .

The rhenium(V) species formed from reduction of Tp'ReO_3 was identified as Tp'Re(O)(OH)_2 . Tp'Re(O)(OH)_2 reacted with ethanol and HCl to form ethoxide and hydroxo chloride complexes. In addition, Tp'Re(O)(OH)_2 was an excellent catalytic and stoichiometric reagent for the deoxygenation of epoxides and sulfoxides. Loss of water from Tp'Re(O)(OH)_2 to form the catalytically active species Tp'ReO_2 was shown to be a necessary preequilibrium process. Chapter 3 will explore the kinetics and mechanism of this catalytic process.

Ch. 3. Kinetics and Mechanism of Rhenium-Catalyzed Epoxide Deoxygenations

3.1 Introduction

The mechanism of oxygen-atom transfer from high-valent oxo metal complexes to organic substrates and its microscopic reverse, the formation of oxo metal complexes from deoxygenation of organic substrates is a very active topic and continues to be debated.^{45-50,52} The mechanism of olefin epoxidation and de-epoxidation is no exception to controversy.^{25,71} Numerous oxo metal reagents have been used to effect epoxidations and epoxide deoxygenations and a number of mechanisms have been proposed. Numerous mechanisms have also been proposed for rhenium catalyzed deoxygenations of diols and epoxides.^{21-22,39-40,56-58,85}

3.2 Mechanism of Mn(salen)-Catalyzed Olefin Epoxidations

In Chapter 1, the Jacobsen-Suzuki asymmetric epoxidation was introduced as an excellent example of how rational design of a catalyst can result in efficient asymmetric catalysis. Jacobsen's Mn(III) salen complex is the most efficient catalyst available for the enantioselective epoxidation of unfunctionalized alkenes.⁹² Although the oxo Mn(V) salen compound has never been isolated and characterized, similar oxo species with different metal centers are known. The

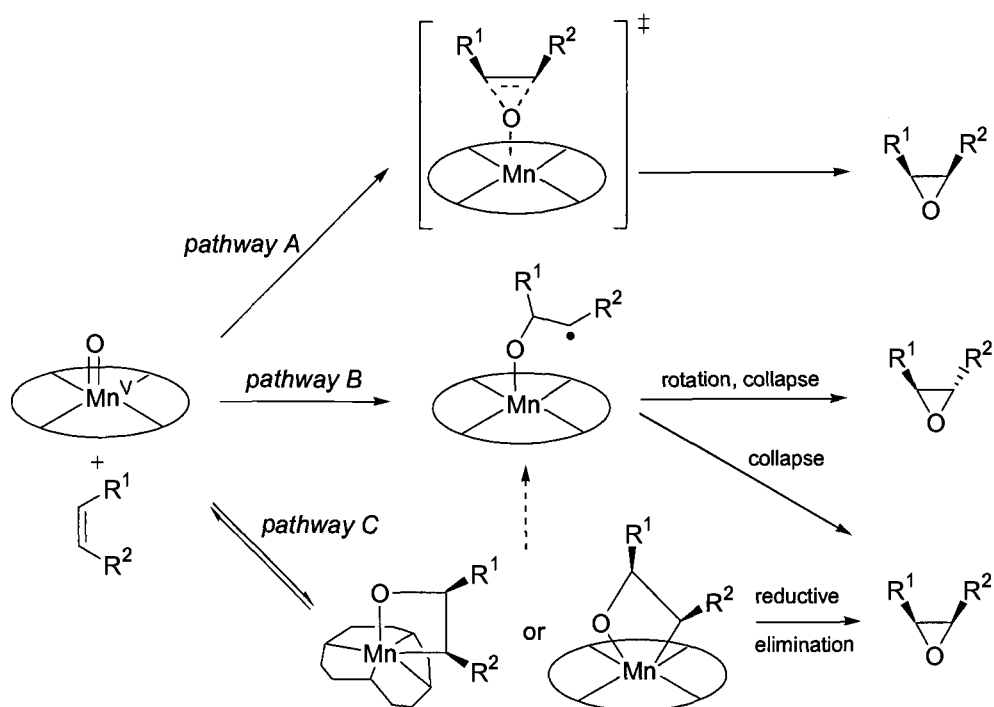
difficulty with isolating the oxo Mn(V) species is a problem common to many oxidation catalysts: the rate-determining step of the catalytic cycle is formation of the oxo complex. This explains why the reactions are independent of olefin concentration.⁹³ A kinetic study revealed the reactions followed Michaelis-Menten kinetics; unfortunately, the kinetics can not provide any information about processes occurring after the rate-determining step. Stereospecific epoxidation was achieved with *trans*-olefins, while conjugated *cis*-olefins produced high yields of conjugated *cis*-epoxides with minor amounts of the corresponding *trans* isomer.⁹⁴ The observed mixture of *cis* and *trans* epoxides immediately argued against a concerted pathway (pathway A) but supported a radical pathway (pathway B) as the simplest mechanism consistent with the data.⁹⁵

However, Katsuki et al. discovered that Mn-salen catalyzed asymmetric epoxidation of certain olefins, such as dihydronaphthalene and styrene, showed a non-linear relationship between temperature and enantioselectivity.⁹⁶ Scharf et al. had previously demonstrated that a non-linear relationship between temperature and enantioselectivity could indicate reversible formation of an intermediate that irreversibly forms product or another intermediate.⁹⁷ The manganaoxetane (pathway C) was proposed as the intermediate that was reversibly formed, which can then irreversibly undergo ring opening to a radical intermediate.

Metalloxetanes have been previously proposed as intermediates, as first proposed by Sharpless et al. for chromyl chloride oxidation of olefins,²⁵ to explain observations (see below) that the other mechanisms neglect. An initial reversible

step would argue against the radical process since the reverse reaction from the radical intermediate back to alkene must be extremely slow to avoid isomerization. No isomerization of the starting alkene was detected. However, a extremely slow step would disagree with the nonlinearity of the temperature versus enantioselectivity study.

Scheme 3.1



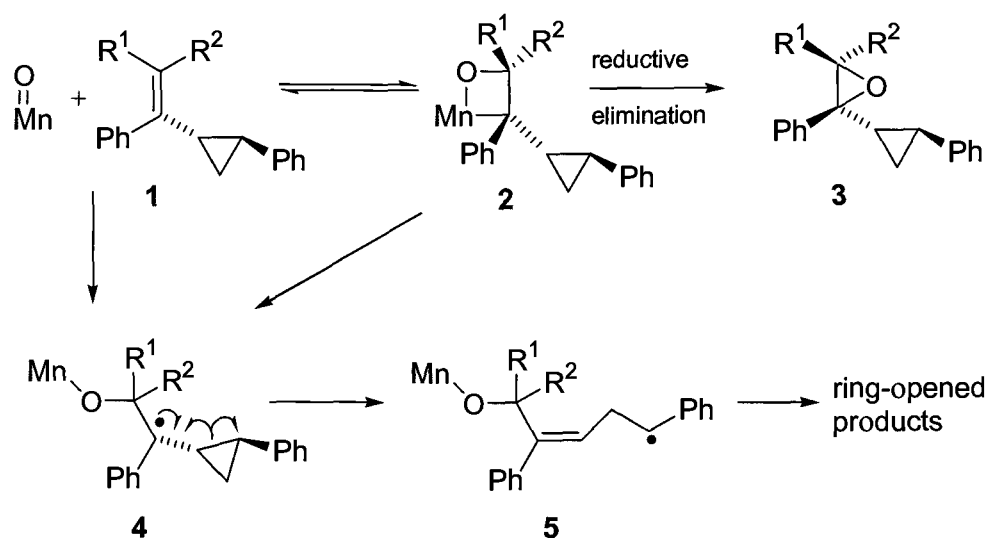
Another particular issue that the radical mechanism failed to answer was how high enantioselectivities could be obtained if the salen ligand was flat. Norrby et al. proposed a mechanism involving reversible formation a metalloxetane

followed by irreversible routes to epoxide (Scheme 3.1, pathway C).⁹⁹ Two irreversible routes were proposed to account for the observed *cis/trans* mixture: (1) Reductive elimination from the oxetane to yield *cis* epoxide, and (2) homolytic cleavage of the carbon-manganese bond, followed by C-C bond rotation and collapse of the intermediate to the *trans* epoxide. In order to account for the high enantioselectivities, it was proposed that puckering of the salen ligand could occur if a metalloxetane intermediate was invoked thus creating a chiral pocket. MacroModel/MM3 calculations were performed on the two diastereotopic metalloxetanes indicating the preference for formation of one diastereotopic metalloxetane over the other. The results from the calculations agreed with the experimental observations.

Additional evidence supporting the metalloxetane mechanism was obtained from phenyl cyclopropane radical probe experiments (Scheme 3.2).⁹⁹ The authors investigated the catalytic epoxidation of substituted styrenes **1a-c** to determine if any ring-opened products would form. If the mechanism proceeds through a radical intermediate then ring opened products should be observed. Conversely, if the metalloxetane forms the epoxide by reductive elimination then the cyclopropane unit will remain untouched. Both **1a** and **1b** exclusively formed **3a** and **3b** (100% yield of epoxide) without any traces of the ring-opened product. Conversely, reaction with **1c** resulted in significant amounts of cyclopropane ring opened product. The experimental data indicated that a radical pathway, whether direct (pathway B) or by homolytic cleavage of the metalloxetane, operated for *Z*

alkenes (**1c**), while the mechanism for *E* alkenes (**1b**) argued against a direct radical pathway. The metalloxetane pathway can account for isomerization of *Z* alkenes. The metalloxetane formed from the *Z* alkene can either reductively eliminate to form the *cis* epoxide or the *Z* alkene can relieve steric crowding between the two (*Z*) substituents by homolysis of the Mn-C bond. The relief of steric crowding would be much less for *E* alkenes and explains why products originating from homolytic cleavage are not observed. The direct radical pathway can not account for the survival of the radical probes observed for **1a** and **1b**.

Scheme 3.2

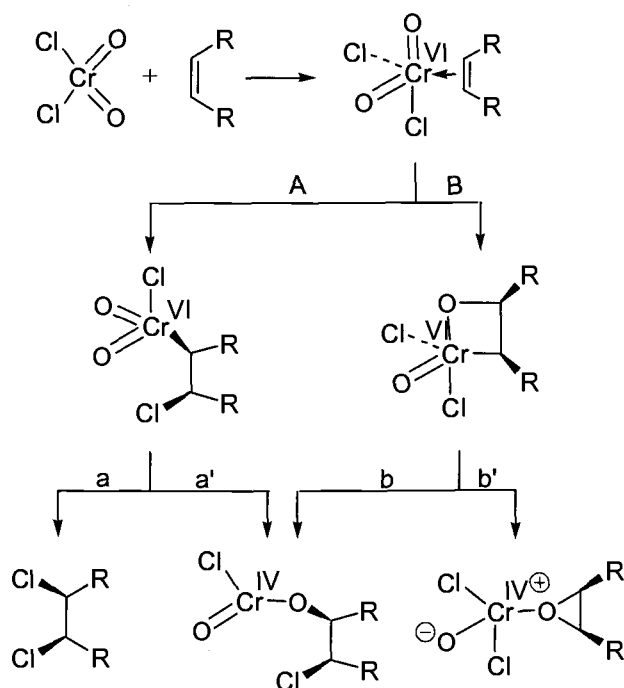


a: $\text{R}^1 = \text{R}^2 = \text{H}$; b: $\text{R}^1 = \text{H}$, $\text{R}^2 = \text{Me}$; c: $\text{R}^1 = \text{Me}$, $\text{R}^2 = \text{H}$

3.3 Mechanism of Chromyl Chloride Oxidation of Olefins

A series of complex mechanisms have been proposed to explain the variety of products formed from the oxidation of alkenes by chromyl chloride.^{25,100} Chromyl chloride is unique compared to other transition metal oxo complexes, such as OsO_4 and KMnO_4 , which form diols when reacted with olefins. Chromyl chloride oxidation of olefins generates predominately epoxides and chlorohydrins along with minor amounts of vicinal dichlorides.¹⁰⁰ Three different mechanisms have been proposed to explain the products formed: (1) Direct addition of olefins to one of the oxygen atoms in a single step, (2) [2+2] cycloaddition of olefin to the oxo group on chromium, and (3) [3+2] cycloaddition of olefin to two oxo groups on chromium. The mechanism was initially believed to involve direct addition of olefin to one of the oxygen atoms.^{100a} However, Sharpless et al. in 1977 proposed the involvement of a chromaoxetane to account for the variety of products formed (Scheme 3.3).²⁵ The argument was based on the hypothesis that attack of a nucleophilic alkene should occur at the electrophilic metal center rather than on the oxygen end of the oxo group. A comparison was made to carbonyls of ketones and aldehydes, which are polarized towards oxygen and react with nucleophiles exclusively at the carbonyl carbon.

Scheme 3.3

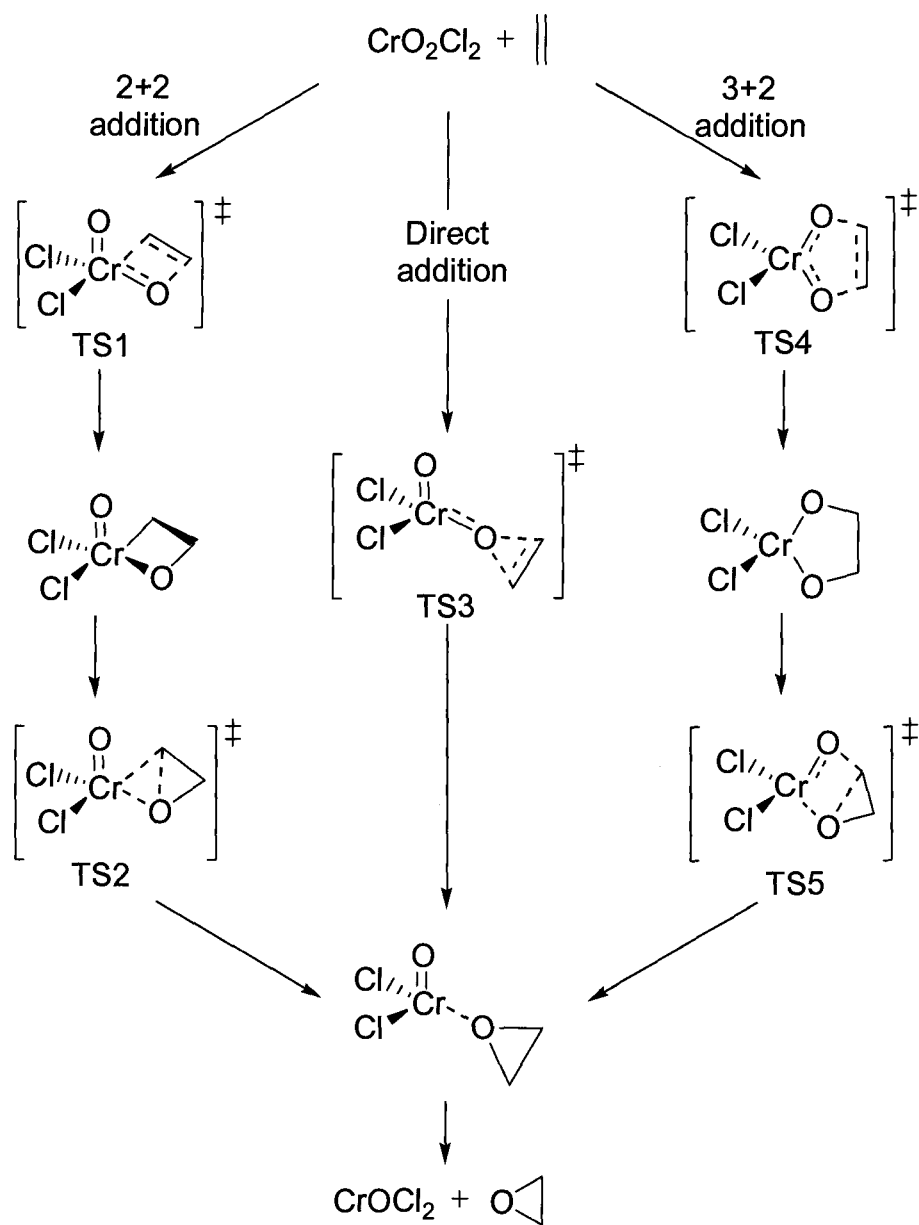


The reaction was proposed to start with pre-coordination of the nucleophilic olefin to the electron deficient Cr(VI) center to form a chromyl chloride-alkene π complex (Scheme 3.3). Competition between pathways **A** and **B** occurred, which accounts for the formation of epoxide and vicinal dichloride. Both pathways could account for the formation of chlorohydrin and both occur with retention of configuration resulting in overall *cis* addition. *Cis* addition was observed experimentally. Unfortunately, the chromaoxetane was never observed or isolated. A computational study by Rappé et al. using the generalized valence bond method supported the metalloxetane mechanism.¹⁰¹ Formation of the chromaoxetane was

exothermic by 14 kcal/mol, while reductive elimination of ethylene oxide was further downhill by 21 kcal/mol. Overall, the calculations predicted oxygen transfer through the chromaoxetane intermediate to be favored by 35 kcal/mol.

Even though the metalloxetane mechanism appeared to support the data, the direct addition of olefin to one of the oxo groups and [3+2] cycloaddition of olefin to two of the oxo groups could also not be excluded. The calculations by Rappe et al.¹⁰¹ were eventually discredited due to limitations in methodology and because the authors were unable to optimize the structures of the different species involved. However, high level density functional theory (DFT) calculations were applied to the reaction between chromyl chloride and ethylene (Scheme 3.4).¹⁰² The authors examined each of the three mechanisms and were able to determine the reaction energies and activation barriers for each pathway. DFT theory predicted that formation of epoxide occurred through the [3+2] addition pathway. The activation barriers for TS4 (TS = transition state) and TS5 were calculated to be 14.0 kcal/mol and 32.4 kcal/mol respectively. The activation barriers for the two-step [2+2] addition were much higher than the [3+2] process; TS1 and TS2 were calculated to be 27.1 kcal/mol and 46.9 kcal/mol. The direct addition pathway resulted in an activation barrier of 30 kcal/mol for TS3. Formation of chlorohydrins and dichlorides were also shown to proceed via a [3+2] addition rather than a [2+2] process. The driving force for this reaction is the formation of a chromium-oxo triple bond.

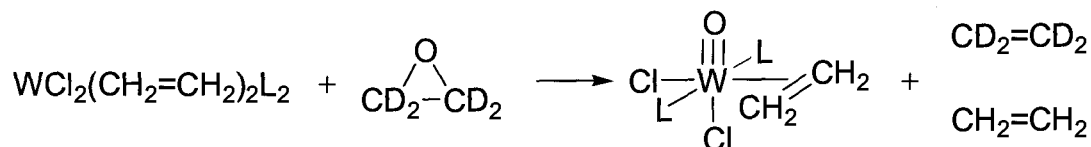
Scheme 3.4



3.4 Mechanism of $\text{WCl}_2(\text{PR}_3)_4$ Catalyzed De-Epoxidations

Based on the principle of microscopic reversibility, the same mechanistic possibilities proposed for epoxidation would be expected for epoxide deoxygenations. $\text{WCl}_2(\text{PMePh}_2)_4$ and $\text{WCl}_2(\text{CH}_2=\text{CH}_2)_2(\text{PMePh}_2)_2$, which were introduced in Chapter 2 as efficient reagents for de-epoxidations, were determined to deoxygenate epoxides through a concerted mechanism.¹⁰³ Epoxides are readily deoxygenated, forming equilibrium mixtures of tungsten(IV) oxo olefin complexes. The rate was insensitive to the concentration of epoxide but was inhibited by added ethylene. Competition between the epoxide and olefin for the empty coordination site slows the rate later in the reaction as more olefin is produced. The deoxygenations were stereospecific but deoxygenation of *cis*-butene oxide resulted in minor amounts of *trans*-2-butene (9%). Surprisingly, neither the starting epoxide nor the product alkene was isomerized under the conditions employed. More substituted epoxides were deoxygenated less readily, while para-substituted styrene oxides resulted in an enhanced turnover frequency. Reaction of ethylene-*d*₄ oxide with $\text{WCl}_2(\text{CH}_2=\text{CH}_2)_2(\text{PMePh}_2)_2$ resulted in de-epoxidation. However, the olefin bound to $\text{WCl}_2(\text{O})(\text{CH}_2=\text{CH}_2)_2\text{L}_2$ (L = PMePh_2) after the reaction is the same olefin bound to $\text{WCl}_2(\text{CH}_2=\text{CH}_2)_2\text{L}_2$ before the reaction. No exchange of $\text{CD}_2=\text{CD}_2$ for $\text{CH}_2=\text{CH}_2$ has occurred (Scheme 3.5).

Scheme 3.5

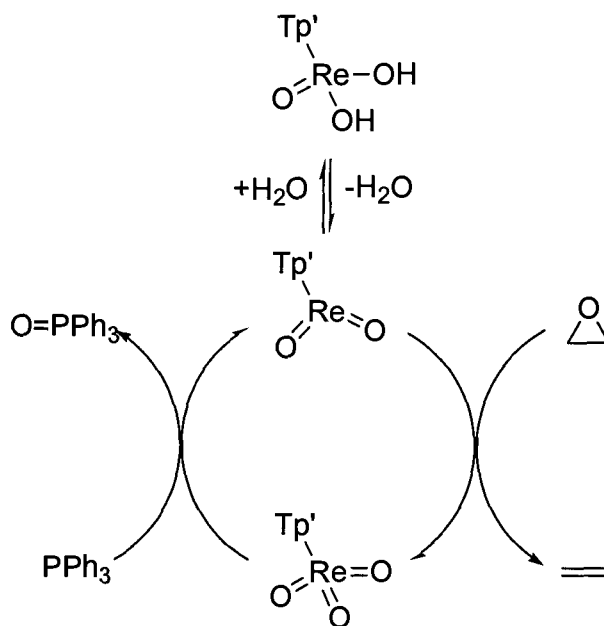


The [2+2] process can immediately be excluded since the reaction with ethylene- d_4 oxide is inconsistent with a mechanism proceeding through a metalloxetane intermediate. Rearrangement of the metalloxetane produces a tungsten(IV) oxo olefin complex which is extremely π -basic and would immediately bind with $\text{CD}_2=\text{CD}_2$ before it could dissociate. Since partial loss of stereochemistry resulted, a carbocation or radical mechanism might appear to be favored. The carbocation mechanism was excluded since a Hammett study showed very little charge buildup at the transition state. The radical process was excluded since the reactivities of ethylene, isobutylene and tetramethylethylene oxides are roughly 100:10:1 ($k_{\text{Me4}}/k_{\text{Me2}} = k_{\text{Me2}}/k_{\text{H4}}$), which is evidence for a concerted mechanism. The [3+2] process is consistent with all the data but the partial loss of stereochemistry observed for *cis*-2-butene oxide. However, loss of stereochemistry may result from a second mechanistic pathway, which makes only a minor contribution. A computational study by Jorgensen et al. supported the [3+2] concerted mechanism as well.¹⁰⁴

3.5 Developing a Mechanism for Rhenium-Catalyzed De-epoxidations

In Chapter 2 we developed an efficient catalytic process capable of deoxygenating epoxides. There are several possible mechanisms for this type of transformation as demonstrated by the preceeding sections. The mechanistic proposal for our system which was developed in Chapter 2 is shown in Scheme 3.6. At this point, the proposal is rather simplified with only three rhenium species involved in the catalytic cycle. The disappearance of insoluble Tp'ReO_3 and the immediate formation of a blue or green colored solution suggested that reduction of Tp'ReO_3 to form Tp'ReO_2 was extremely rapid. Conversely, O-atom transfer from the epoxide to reactive Tp'ReO_2 was expected to be the rate-determining step of the catalytic cycle. The equilibrium between Tp'ReO_2 and Tp'Re(O)(OH)_2 becomes important under hydrous conditions; the deliberate addition of 10 μL of H_2O decreased the turnover frequency by half. Under these conditions, the resting state for the catalyst was determined to be the oxo bis-hydroxide complex as evident by ^1H NMR. Formation of Tp'Re(O)(OH)_2 effectively removes the amount of catalytically active Tp'ReO_2 thus reducing the reaction rate.

Scheme 3.6

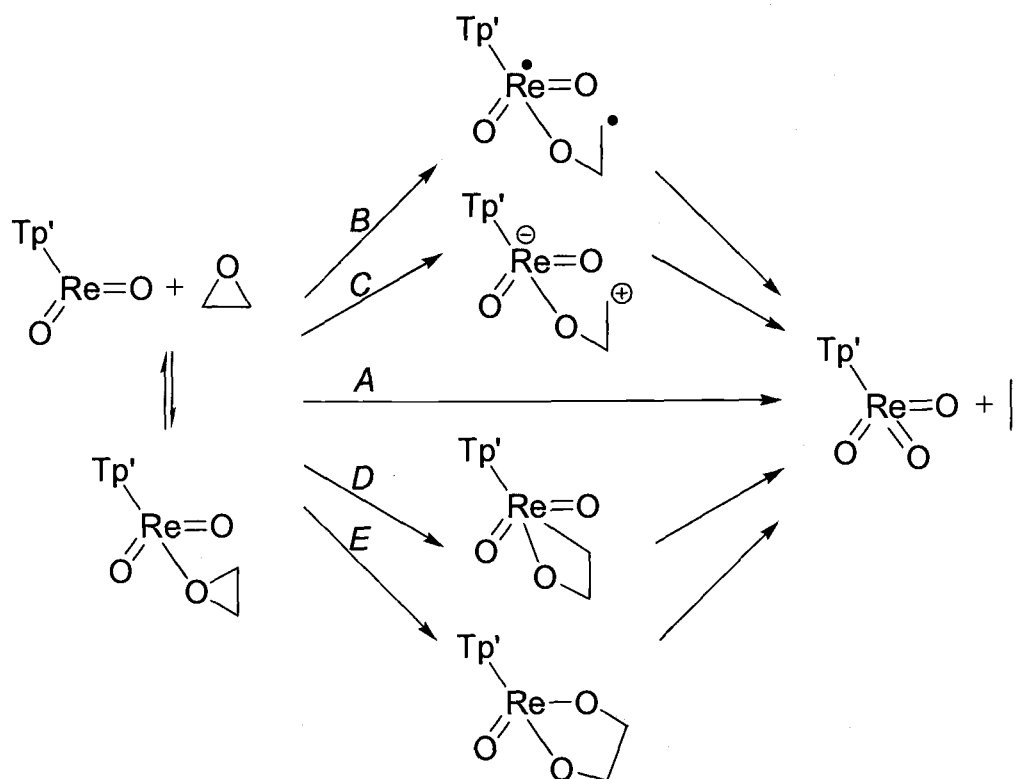


3.6 Possible Mechanisms for Rhenium-Catalyzed De-epoxidations

A number of possible mechanisms can be proposed for the O-atom transfer step from epoxide to $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_2$ (Scheme 3.7). The simplest possibility is concerted fragmentation of the epoxide (pathway A). Other possibilities include mechanisms involving C-O bond homolysis (pathway B) to form a diradical intermediate and C-O bond heterolysis (pathway C) to form a zwitterionic intermediate. Possible step-wise mechanisms include oxidative addition of the epoxide to form a metalloxetane intermediate (pathway D) followed by a retro-[2+2] cycloreversion and formation of a rhenium(V) diolate (pathway E) followed by a retro-[3+2] cycloreversion.

Scheme 3.7 also includes possible equilibrium formation of a coordinated epoxide, but direct O-atom transfer without formation a coordinated epoxide intermediate is also possible.

Scheme 3.7



The reactivity study presented in Chapter 2 offers preliminary clues into the mechanism(s) operating in rhenium-catalyzed epoxide deoxygenations. Retention of configuration is the major tool used to determine if a radical or polar mechanism is operating. Any intermediate in which the C-O bond of the epoxide is broken

would be expected to undergo single bond rotation (low-energy process usually costing ≤ 5 kcal/mol) rather than collapse to form alkene. Both the radical and ionic mechanisms are unlikely, since predominant retention of configuration was observed for most substrates. However, loss of stereochemistry with *cis*- and *trans*-butene oxide was observed. The deoxygenation of *cis*-butene oxide yielded roughly 88% *cis*- and 12% *trans*-butene oxide. Conversely, *trans*-butene oxide gave 33% *cis*- and 77% *trans*-butene oxide. Partial loss of stereochemistry could occur through a second mechanistic pathway (see Section 3.20). No significant solvent dependence was observed, as shown in Table 3.1. The minor decrease in turnover number for the coordinating solvent acetonitrile- d_3 is attributed to solvent ligation rather than a solvent effect resulting from a polar mechanism (the magnitude of the change is too small).

Table 3.1 Solvent effects on deoxygenation of *cis*-stilbene oxide at 75.3°C.

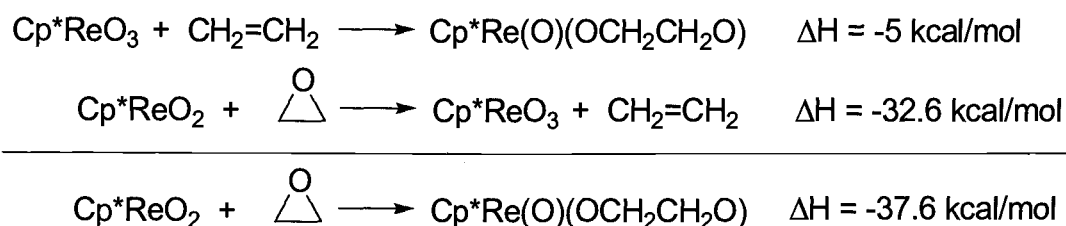
Solvent	k_{obs} (M/s)
benzene- d_6	1.4×10^{-6}
benzene- d_6 + 3.77 μL ether (0.036mmol)	1.5×10^{-6}
benzene- d_6 + 0.94 μL acetonitrile (0.018mmol)	1.6×10^{-6}
acetonitrile- d_3	1.0×10^{-6}

From the reactivity study, either the concerted pathway or one of the two organometallic pathways is necessary to explain the retention of stereochemistry. A concerted mechanism would be consistent with the electronic effects observed with increasing aryl and alkyl substitution of the epoxide. Increasing the alkyl substitution of the epoxide was shown to slow the rate of reaction, while increasing the number of aryl groups increased the rate. On the other hand, the electronic effects observed are inconsistent with a metalloxetane mechanism; the rate of reaction of different epoxides has been suggested to depend more upon steric than electronic effects.¹⁰⁵ The faster reaction of isobutylene oxide than of *cis*- or *trans*-butene oxide supports the metalloxetane mechanism. The formation of the metallocycle from *cis*- and *trans*-butene oxide would be much slower compared to isobutylene oxide because a methyl group would occupy the sterically crowded space next to the metal. Likewise, the lack of reactivity for tetramethylethylene oxide could be argued as proof for a metalloxetane mechanism using the same reasoning.

Ring expansion of the epoxide to form a rhenium(V) intermediate that undergoes cycloreversion is also thermodynamically possible. The thermodynamics of the ring expansion for Cp*ReO₃ can be calculated using the reaction enthalpy of olefin epoxidation and dihydroxylation calculated by Ziegler (Scheme 3.8).¹⁰² Ring expansion of the epoxide is favored by 37.6 kcal/mol. Furthermore, the observation that *cis* epoxides were deoxygenated faster than *trans* epoxides suggests our transition state is similar to the transition states involved in

many metal-catalyzed epoxidations. Cis olefins are normally epoxidized more readily than trans olefins by oxo metal complexes.^{94,105,106} Overall, neither the concerted or stepwise processes can be immediately excluded.

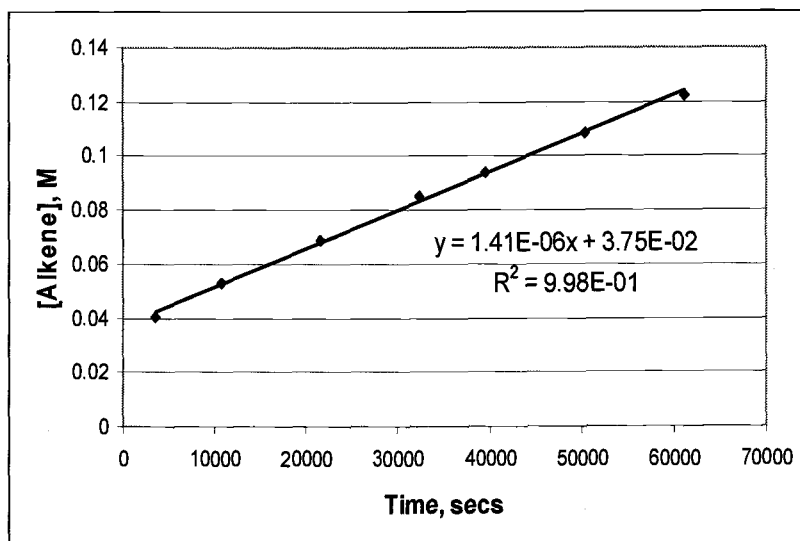
Scheme 3.8



3.7 Kinetic Studies

A kinetic study was undertaken to establish the rate law and develop a better understanding of the reaction mechanism. Typical kinetic runs consisted of preparing and drying epoxide solutions containing different concentrations of epoxide, triphenylphosphine and 1,4-di-*tert*-butylbenzene (integration standard) in dry benzene-*d*₆ over CaH₂. 0.5 mL aliquots were then added to NMR tubes containing different amounts of Tp'ReO₃ and sealed under vacuum. The samples were then heated in thermostated water/ethylene glycol baths and periodically removed and analyzed by ¹H NMR. A relaxation delay of 15-30 s was used to ensure accurate integration.

A.



B.

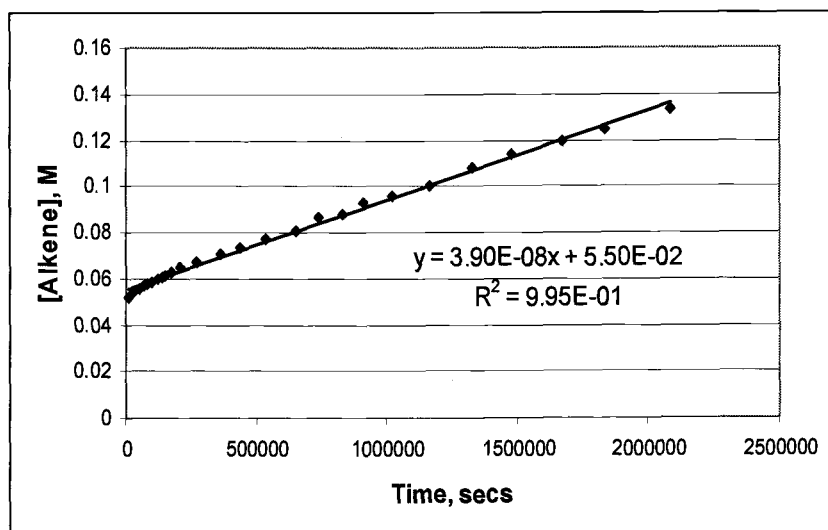
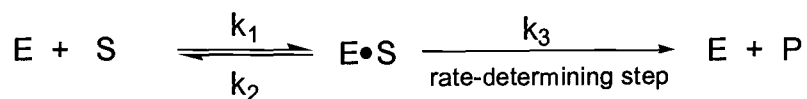


Figure 3.1 Concentration of alkene versus time plot for deoxygenation of (A) *cis*-stilbene oxide and (B) styrene oxide.

The kinetic study was carried out with *cis*-stilbene oxide and styrene oxide as substrates. The preliminary kinetic data showed pseudo-zero order behavior for production of alkene (Figure 3.1). Rate measurements were then taken at different concentrations for each reactant to determine the order of the reaction with respect to each reactant. A first-order dependence in $[\text{Re}]_{\text{T}}$ was determined (Figure 3.2); doubling the concentration of rhenium from $9.03 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M}$ (5 mol-%) to $1.81 \times 10^{-2} \text{ M}$ (10 mol-%) doubled the rate constant k_{obs} . Conversely, zero-order behavior in $[\text{PPh}_3]$ was observed as indicated by the near zero slope in Figure 3.3. A dependence in $[\text{Epoxide}]$ was also determined, but the kinetic study revealed that the reaction rate was dependent on the concentration of epoxide (Scheme 3.4). The plot of velocity versus *cis*-stilbene oxide concentration is shown in Figure 3.2C. At a constant concentration of catalyst, the reaction rate increased with increasing *cis*-stilbene oxide concentration until a maximum velocity was reached. This kinetic behavior is frequently encountered in enzymology and is described by the Michaelis-Menten equation (Scheme 3.9).¹⁰⁷ The enzyme (E) and substrate (S) reversibly bind to form an intermediate enzyme-substrate complex ($\text{E} \cdot \text{S}$) whose decomposition into products (P) is rate-controlling. With an excess of substrate ($[\text{S}] \gg K_{\text{m}}$), the Michaelis-Menten equation is reduced to $\text{rate} = k_3[\text{E}_0]$ and one obtains a zero-order reaction. Conversely, when $[\text{S}] \ll K_{\text{m}}$ then the $[\text{S}]$ term disappears from the denominator and the $\text{rate} = (k_3[\text{E}_0] [\text{S}])/K_{\text{m}} = k'[\text{S}]$. This

explains the shape of the velocity versus substrate plot; first-order kinetics is observed at low substrate concentration and zero-order kinetics is observed at high substrate concentration.

Scheme 3.9



$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = \frac{k_3 [E_o] [S]}{K_m + [S]} \quad K_m = (k_3 + k_2)/k_1$$

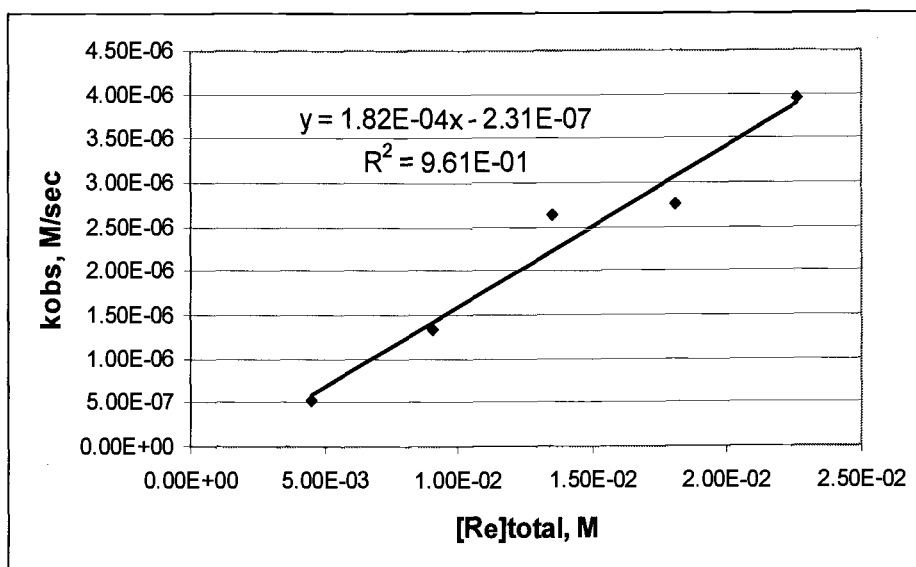


Figure 3.2 Dependence of turnover frequency on initial rhenium concentration.

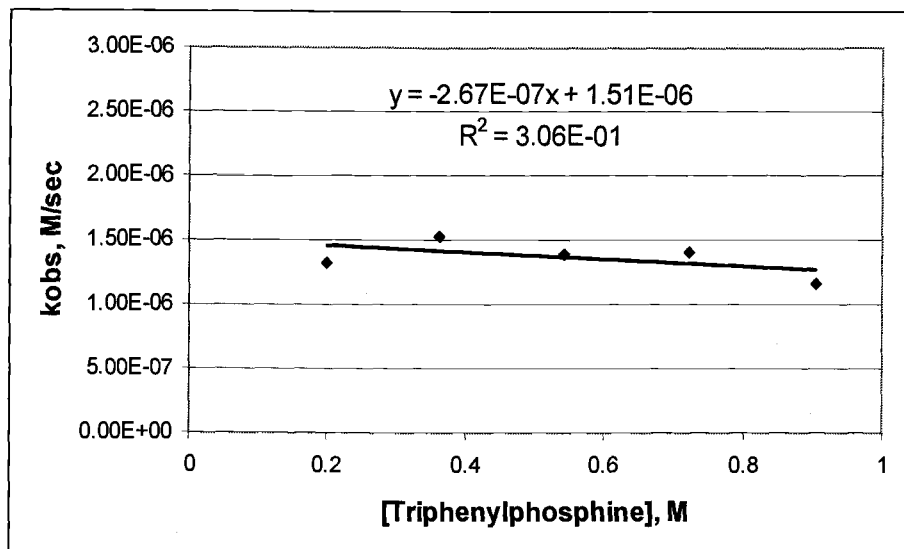


Figure 3.3 Dependence of turnover frequency on initial triphenylphosphine concentration.

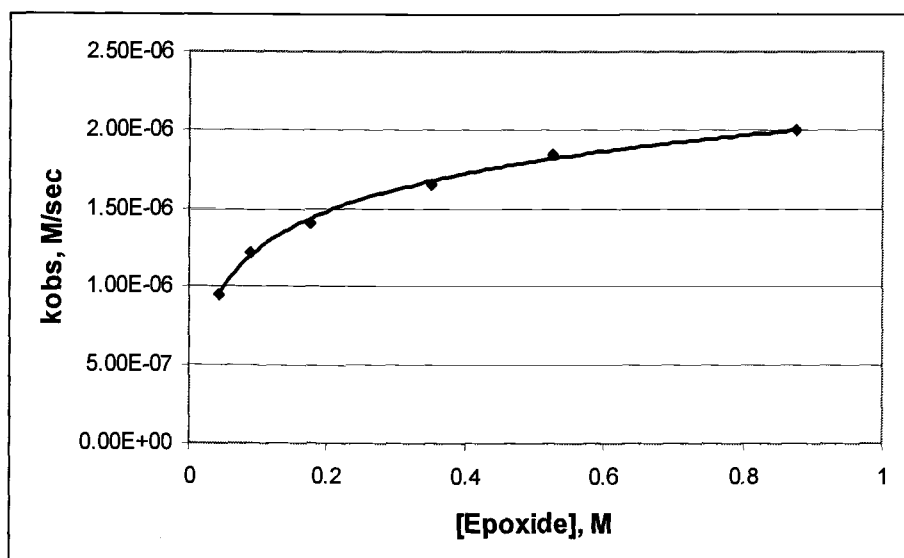
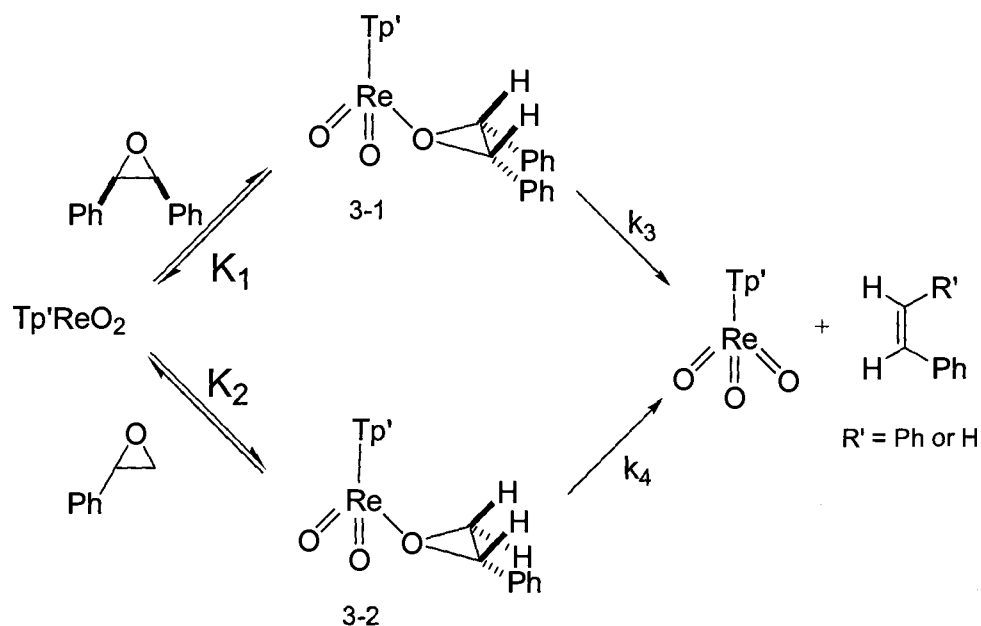


Figure 3.4 Dependence of turnover frequency on initial *cis*-stilbene oxide concentration.

3.8 Competition Experiment

In analogy to Scheme 3.9, we propose a mechanism in which the epoxide reversibly binds to Tp'ReO_2 forming a coordinated epoxide intermediate. A competition experiment between *cis*-stilbene oxide and styrene oxide as substrates further support the existence of a coordinated epoxide intermediate. A 1:1 mixture of the two substrates along with an integration standard, triphenylphosphine and benzene- d_6 were sealed with solid Tp'ReO_3 in an NMR tube under vacuum and heated to 75.3°C. Styrene was the major olefin produced after 321 h; 63% of styrene oxide ($k_{\text{obs}} = 4.7 \times 10^{-8} \text{ M/s}$) had been converted compared to 5% for *cis*-stilbene oxide ($k_{\text{obs}} = 5.9 \times 10^{-9} \text{ M/s}$). Oddly enough, *cis*-stilbene oxide had been shown in separate experiments (see also Chapter 2; Table 2.1) to be deoxygenated more rapidly when it was the sole substrate: the turnover rates for *cis*-stilbene oxide and styrene oxide are $1.41 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M/s}$ (Figure 3.1A) and $3.9 \times 10^{-8} \text{ M/s}$ (Figure 3.1B) respectively. This type of behavior is consistent with a mechanism involving reversible formation of a coordinated epoxide intermediate (Scheme 3.10). Even though *cis*-stilbene oxide is deoxygenated more readily ($k_3 > k_4$; greater relief of steric compression), binding of the epoxide is more favorable for the more electron rich and sterically less hindered styrene oxide ($K_2 > K_1$). As a result, the majority of rhenium is tied up in complex **3-2** preventing **3-1** from building up to an appreciable level.

Scheme 3.10



3.9 Hammett Study

A linear free energy relationship study was undertaken to gain further insight into the transition state of the rate-determining step. A series of *para*-substituted styrene oxides were synthesized and used as substrates in the Hammett study. A plot of $\ln(k_i/k_h)$ vs σ^{108} is shown in Figure 3.5. In our system a nonlinear Hammett plot was observed depending on the electronic nature of the substituent. Both electron-withdrawing (positive σ values) and electron-donating groups (negative σ values) enhance the rate versus styrene oxide. Electron donors show a $\rho = -1.28$, while electron-withdrawing groups have a $\rho = +0.52$. A similar concave

deviation is observed with σ^+ values. An upward V-shaped Hammett plot is indicative of a change in mechanism or of at least two competing pathways.¹⁰⁹ A similar deviation where the curvature occurs at zero has also been observed for rhenium(V) diolate cycloreversions⁵⁴ and H/D exchange reactions catalyzed by a molybdocene complex.¹¹⁰

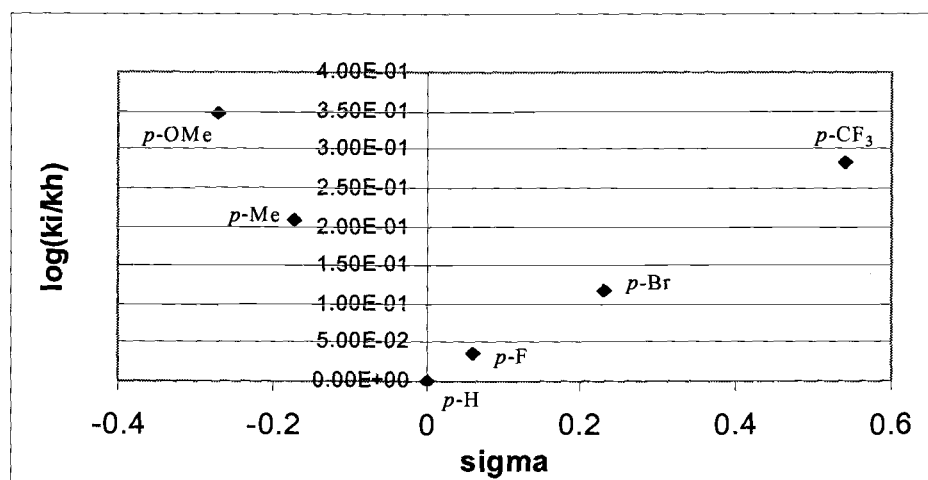


Figure 3.5 Hammett plot for deoxygenation of substituted styrene oxides.

3.10 Pseudo-Zero Order Plots

Two important observations required us to reconsider our initial mechanistic model. First, the concentration vs time plots (Figure 3.1) showed that the trend line did not intercept at the origin. Upon following the reaction more closely during the beginning of the deoxygenation process, an initial “burst” of

alkene formation was observed (Figure 3.6). However, a slower steady-state system eventually developed and explained the linear pseudo-zero order portion of the plot. An induction period, resulting from reduction of insoluble Tp'ReO_3 by triphenylphosphine, can not explain the “burst” of alkene formation since buildup of active Tp'ReO_2 during an induction period would have delayed, not accelerated alkene production.

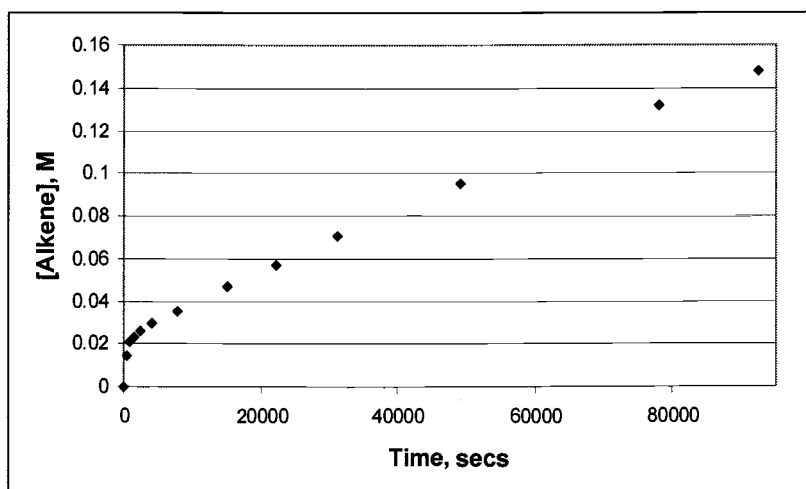


Figure 3.6 Concentration of alkene versus time plot for deoxygenation of *cis*-stilbene oxide.

3.11 Catalyst Resting State Species

A second observation was that a reduced Re(V) species could be observed by NMR spectroscopy; the symmetry of the catalyst resting state species changed

with the symmetry of the epoxide. Symmetrical epoxides formed a rhenium species with C_s -symmetry and non-symmetrical epoxides formed a species with C_1 -symmetry. An initial rational was that we were observing the coordination epoxide complex but the absence of epoxide CH proton signals suggested otherwise. The structure was finally determined after the spectrum of the species generated from styrene oxide was matched to the spectrum of the minor isomer in the crude reaction mixture resulting from cyclocondensation of phenylethanediol with $Tp'ReO_3$ and PPh_3 .⁸³ The minor isomer formed from the cyclocondensation reaction is the *syn*-monophenyldiolate complex (**3-3**), while the major isomer is *anti*-monophenyldiolate (**3-4**). The *syn* stereochemistry had already been established for complex **3-3** by a nuclear Overhauser enhancement experiment.⁵⁴ The *syn* stereochemistry for *syn-cis*-diphenyldiolate (**3-5**) was also confirmed by nOe studies. The methyl group on the Tp' ligand that points directly towards the diolate ring provides a useful spectroscopic handle to distinguish between the two diastereoisomers. For **3-5** irradiation of the carbinol-type CH proton at δ 6.70 ppm led to a nuclear Overhauser enhancement of only the ortho phenyl protons at δ 7.33 ppm (Figure 3.7). The pyrazole methyl signal at δ 2.21 ppm was also irradiated and resulted in an enhancement of the pyrazole vinyl signal at δ 5.52 and the ortho phenyl protons at δ 7.33 ppm. The *anti-cis*-diphenyldiolate (**3-5**), which is formed from cyclocondensation of *meso*-hydrobenzoin with $Tp'ReO_3$ and PPh_3 , was synthesized for comparison. For **3-6** irradiation of the pyrazole methyl led to an enhancement of the pyrazole vinyl signal at 5.56 ppm and the carbinol-type CH

proton at δ 6.64 ppm. Conversely, irradiation at the carbinol-type CH proton led to an enhancement of the pyrazole methyl signal at δ 2.55 ppm and the ortho phenyl protons at δ 7.07 ppm. In addition, the pyrazole methyl of the *syn*-isomer (**3-5**), which sits between the two diolate phenyl rings, undergoes a shift upfield to δ 2.21 ppm compared to δ 2.55 ppm for the *anti*-isomer. This is consistent with the methyl group experiencing anisotropy from the diamagnetic ring currents. High resolution mass spectroscopy confirmed that **3-3** and **3-5** had compositions resulting from the addition of epoxide to Tp^*ReO_2 . The IR spectrum for both compounds showed only a single oxo stretch at 957 cm^{-1} for **3-3** and 958 cm^{-1} for **3-5**. The frequency of the $\text{Re}=\text{O}$ stretch in both compounds resemble that of other diolate complexes ($\sim 957\text{ cm}^{-1}$).

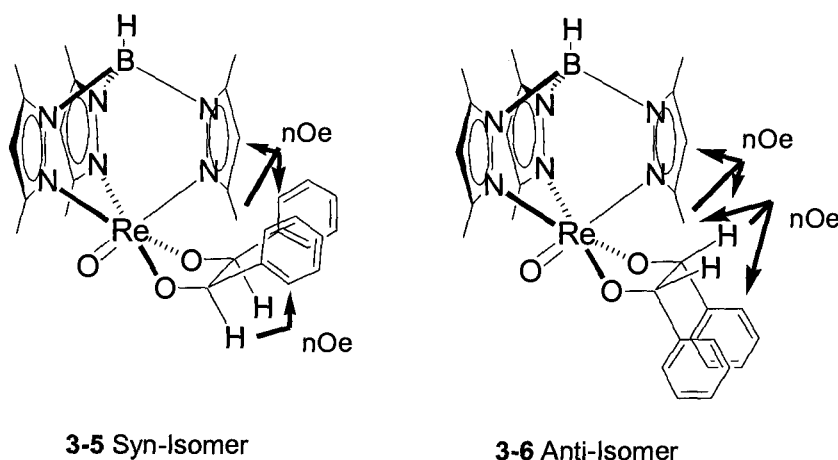


Figure 3.7 nOe enhancements for **3-5** and **3-6**.

Figure 3.8 nOe spectrum of 3-5.

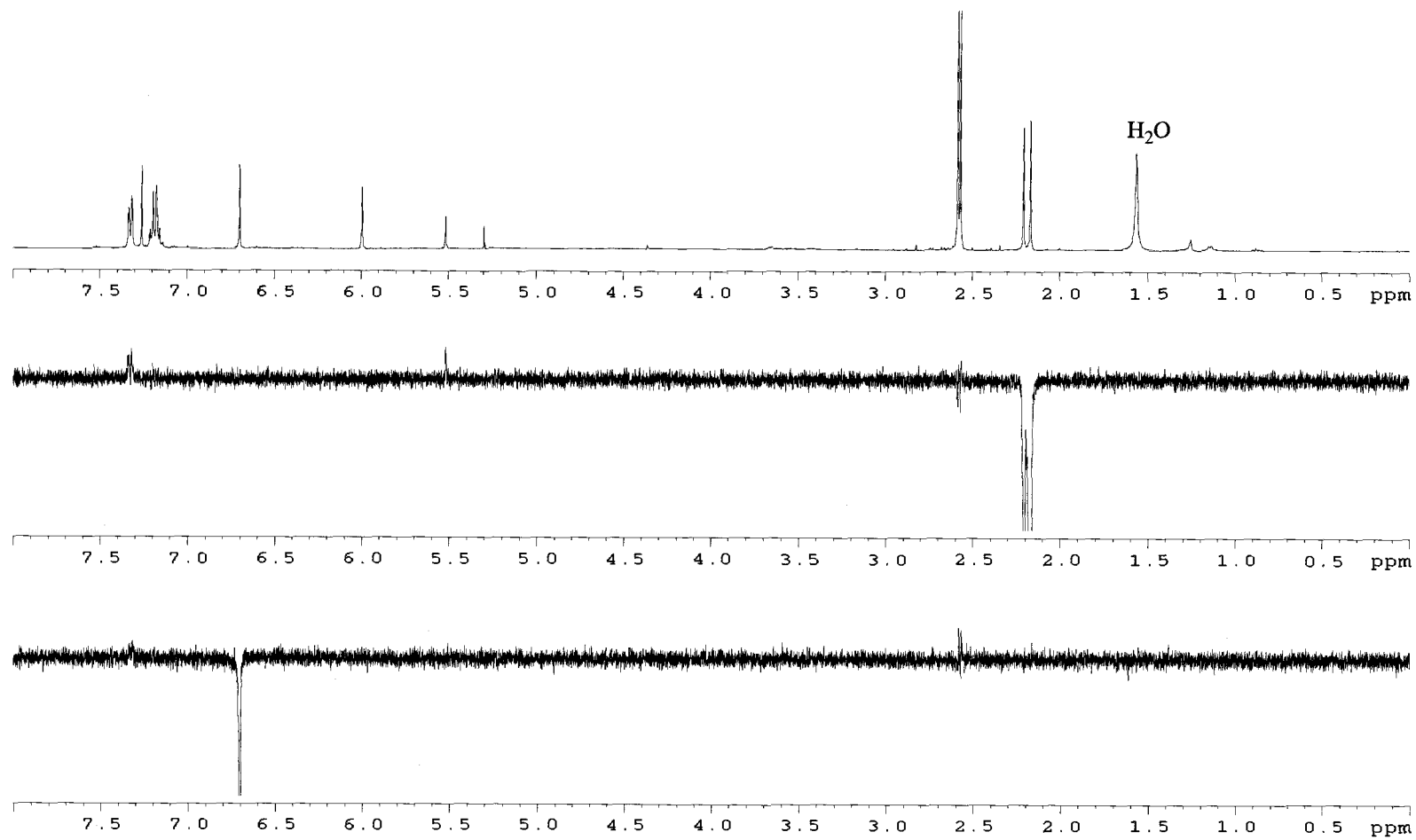
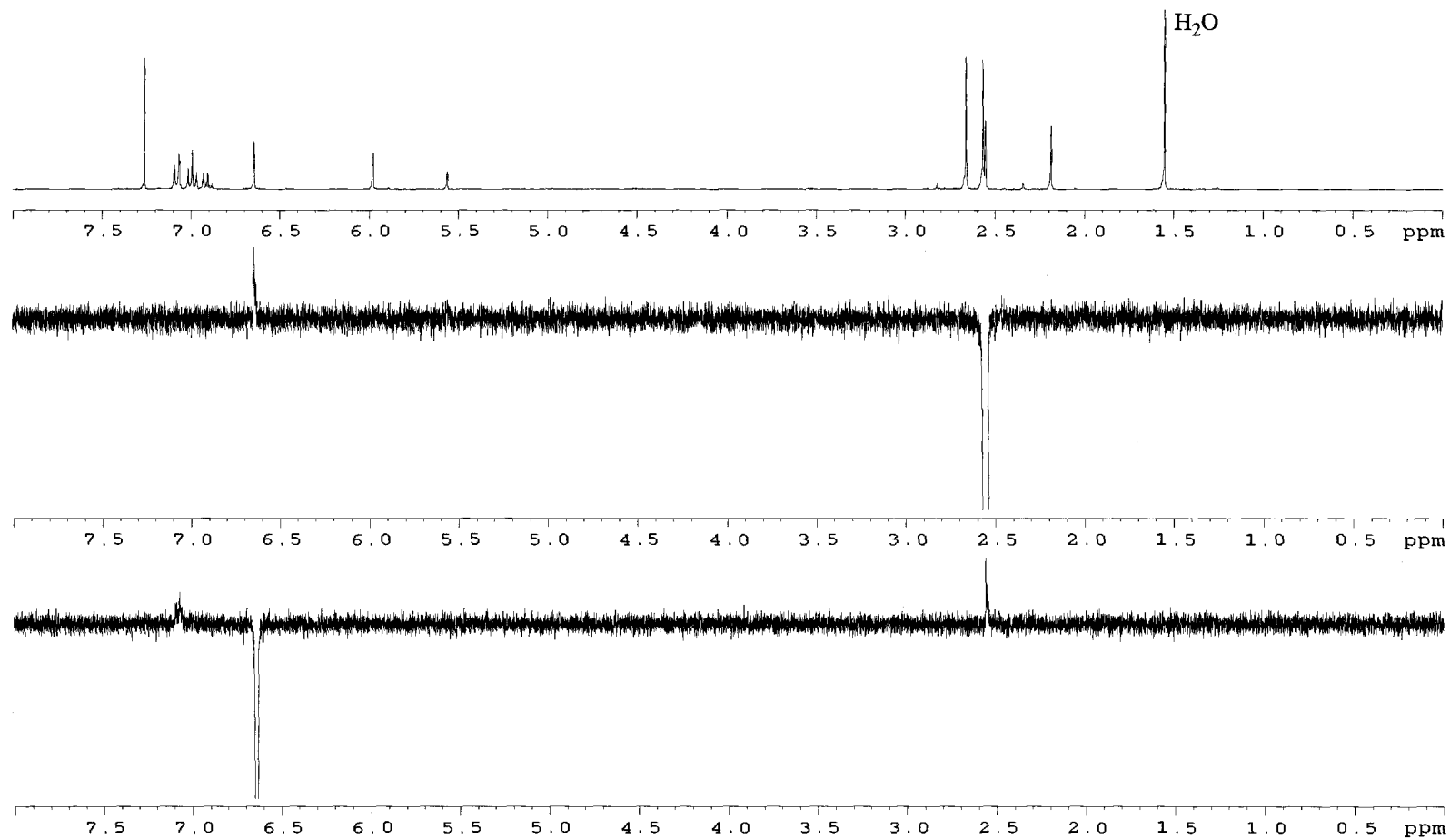


Figure 3.9 nOe spectrum of 3-6.



3.12 Lewis Acidity of $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_2$

Although ring expansion of an epoxide to form *syn*- $\text{Tp}'\text{Re}(\text{O})(\text{diolate})$ has never been documented before, MTO (CH_3ReO_3) will react with epoxides to form rhenium(VII) diolate complexes as shown in Chapter 1 (Scheme 1.5).³⁹ MTO is very Lewis acidic and acid-mediated ring opening of the epoxide followed by migration to the adjacent terminal oxo group is a reasonable proposal. However, $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_2$ was shown not to be very electrophilic compared to MTO. For example, incomplete reduction of Lewis acidic MTO by PPh_3 forms the metal-coordinated phosphine oxide adduct $\text{CH}_3\text{ReO}_2\cdot\text{OPPh}_3$.¹¹¹ Reduction of $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ by PPh_3 results in the free form of $\text{Ph}_3\text{P}=\text{O}$ and $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_2$. This was further demonstrated by measuring the rate of *cis*-stilbene oxide deoxygenation after the deliberate addition of 1 equivalent of $\text{Ph}_3\text{P}=\text{O}$ (0.0903 mmol). If a phosphine oxide adduct is formed then the turnover frequency should decrease since $\text{Ph}_3\text{P}=\text{O}$ will be competing with epoxide for the empty coordination site on the metal. The turnover frequency was found to be 1.22×10^{-6} M/s for the reaction with added $\text{Ph}_3\text{P}=\text{O}$ compared to 1.4×10^{-6} M/s for the reaction without added $\text{Ph}_3\text{P}=\text{O}$. The value is well within the 20% experimental error range, which supports the claim that neither phosphines nor phosphine oxides coordinate appreciably to the dioxo complex. Furthermore, the retention of configuration (>95%) observed for *cis*-stilbene oxide deoxygenations and the lack of solvent effects (see Table 3.1) argue against Lewis acid catalyzed ring opening of the epoxide.

3.13 Kinetic vs Thermodynamic Origin

Formation of **3-3** and **3-5** was shown to be kinetic in origin. This was demonstrated by stirring the *syn, cis*-diphenyldiolate **3-5** with an excess of 1,2-diphenylethanediol and *p*-toluenesulfonic acid for three days under inert conditions. Exclusive formation of the *anti*-diolate resulted. Conversely, the *anti*-diolate **3-6**, under the same conditions, does not lead to the formation of the *syn*-diolate **3-5**. Computational modeling supports the experiment. Comparison of *syn, cis*- and *syn, anti*-TpRe(O)(OCH(CH₃)CH(CH₃)O) (the nonmethylated ligand is used to simplify the calculations) was undertaken to determine which isomer was thermodynamically favored. The structures were optimized at the B3LYP/LACVP*+ level. A vibrational analysis showed that the calculated structures were true minima (no imaginary frequencies). The *syn, anti*-diphenyldiolate was determined to be more favored by 1.23 kcal/mol (Figure 3.10). The two optimized diolate geometries agree with the published X-ray crystal structure reported for TkRe(O)(OCH₂CH₂O).¹¹² The difference in energy between the two structures might have been even greater had the modeled reaction included the methylated ligand and the phenyl groups on the diolate ring.

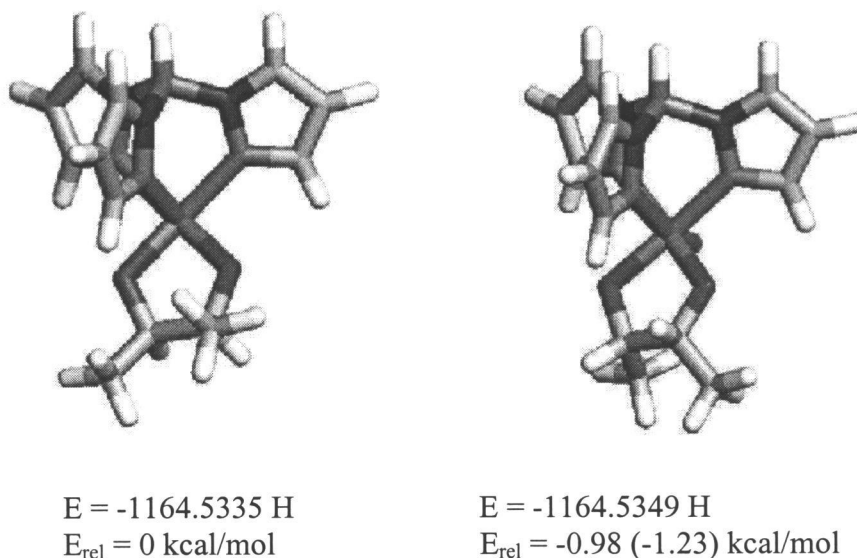


Figure 3.10 Optimized structures and energies at the B3LYP/LACVP*+ level.
Value in parenthesis is ZPE-corrected.

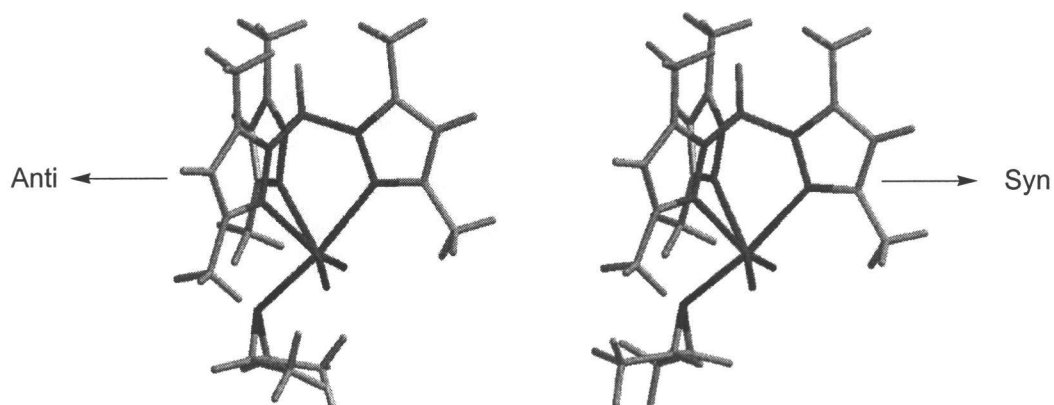


Figure 3.11 Model representation demonstrating how steric factors govern the kinetic preference for the *syn*-diolate.

Kinetic formation of the *syn*-diolate is believed to be driven by steric factors. If the *syn*-diolate proceeds through a coordinated epoxide intermediate and the epoxide binds parallel with the complex, then steric factors will orient the substituents on the epoxide away from the two oxo groups as shown in Figure 3.11. Once the coordinated epoxide is formed, it can undergo ring expansion thus locking the diolate into the *syn* conformation (migration of carbon to oxygen with retention of configuration will fix the stereochemistry, regardless of which carbon migrates). Computational modeling of the *syn*- and *anti*-coordinated epoxide intermediates agree with this model. The *syn*-coordinated epoxide complex converged at the B3LYP/LACVP** level. Vibrational analysis confirmed the absence of an imaginary frequency. The optimized structure of the *syn*-epoxide complex is shown in Figure 3.12. The Re-O bond to the epoxide was found to be 2.344 Å and the Re=O bonds were 1.741 Å. The structure that eventually converged for the *anti*-epoxide complex demonstrates how the steric interaction between the substituents on the epoxide and the two oxo groups destabilized the complex more than the energy gained by forming the Re-epoxide interaction.

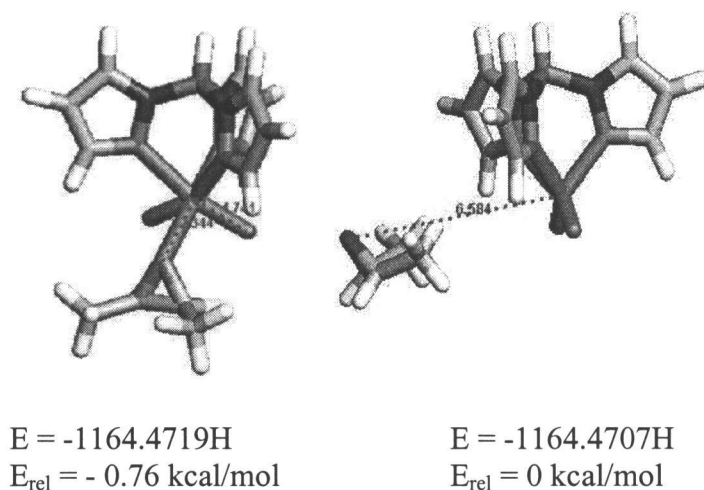


Figure 3.12 Optimized structures at the B3LYP/LACVP*+ level.

3.14 Intermediacy of a Rhenium(V) Diolate

Since the *syn*-diolate was determined to be the resting state of the catalyst, a reassessment of the mechanistic model was necessary. The new model (Scheme 3.11) would require cycloreversion of the *syn*-diolate to be the rate-controlling step. Unfortunately, the new model can not account for the saturation behavior since the rate will depend only on the amount of diolate and the rate constant for cycloreversion (formation of the diolate from the epoxide complex is irreversible). Furthermore, the new model does not explain the initial “burst” of alkene production observed in the pseudo-zero order plots. To test the new model, the rate constants for diolate cycloreversion were required for both of the *syn*-diolates.

Diolates **3-3**, **3-5** and **3-6** were dissolved in C_6D_6 and sealed in NMR tubes under vacuum. They were heated to 75.3 ± 0.1 °C; the sample tube was periodically removed and the 1H NMR spectrum was recorded. The reactions were first-order to at least four half lives (see Appendix). The reaction rate constants are listed in Table 3.3. The rate constant determined for *anti-cis*-diphenyldiolate **3-6** in benzene- d_6 was within experimental error of the extrapolated rate constant for **3-6** taken from prior data measured in toluene- d_8 . Therefore, the extrapolated rate constant for **3-4** was used rather than repeat the experiment in benzene- d_6 . Oddly enough, the addition of a second phenyl group switched the relative order of reactivity for *syn*- vs *anti*-diolate cycloreversions. The *syn-cis*-diphenyldiolate **3-5** cycloreverts faster than the *anti-cis*-diphenyldiolate **3-6**, while the *anti*-monophenyldiolate **3-4** cycloreverts faster than the *syn*-monophenyldiolate **3-3**. The greater relief of steric compression for **3-5** can be used to explain this effect.

Scheme 3.11

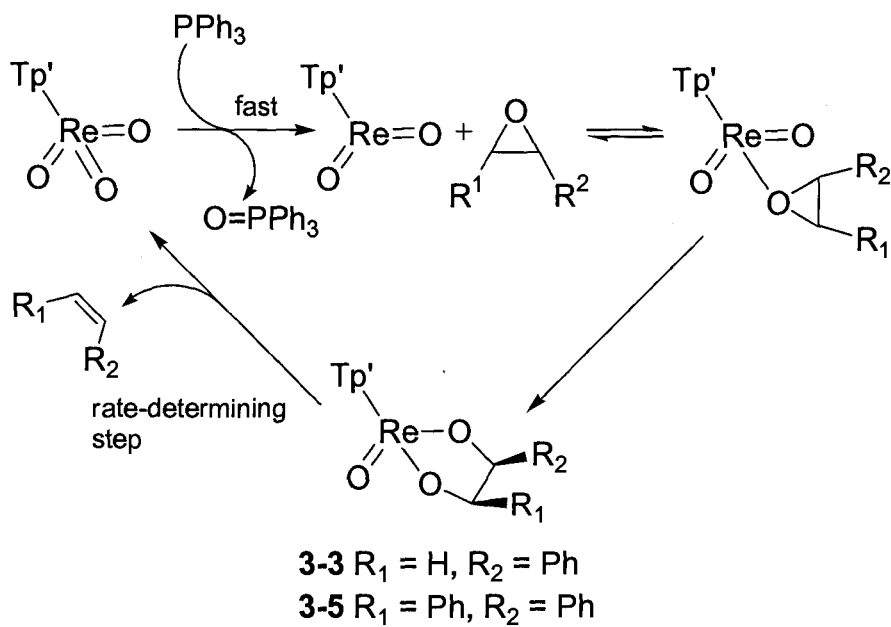


Table 3.2 Rate constants for cycloreversion at 75.3°C.

Compound	Measured Rate Constant, s ^{-1a}	Extrapolated Rate Constant, s ^{-1b}
3-3	$(6.46 \pm 0.20) \times 10^{-7}$	
3-4		5.88×10^{-6}
3-5	$(6.04 \pm 0.23) \times 10^{-5}$	
3-6	$(5.97 \pm 0.35) \times 10^{-6}$	6.29×10^{-6}

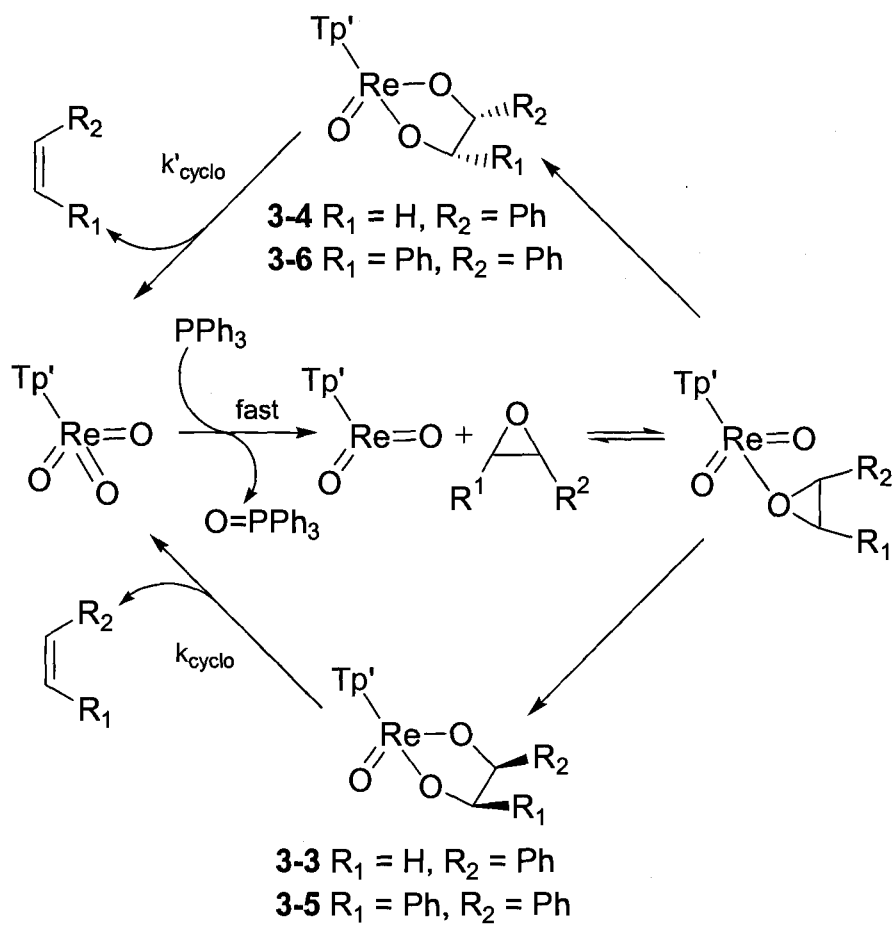
^aThis work. Uncertainties at 95% confidence levels.
^bRef. 83, extrapolated from activation parameters.

3.15 Diolates Are Kinetically Incompetent to Explain Reaction Rates

Once the rate constants for cycloreversion were determined, it was now possible to compare the observed reaction rates under catalytic conditions to the calculated rates predicted by Scheme 3.11. The rate of alkene formation should be equal to the concentration of the diolate times the rate constant for cycloreversion. The observed turnover frequency for 0.009 M total rhenium is 1.4×10^{-6} M/s for deoxygenation of *cis*-stilbene oxide. If the $d[\text{alkene}]/dt = k_{\text{cyclo}}[\text{syn-Diolate}]$, then the calculated rate is 4.62×10^{-7} M/s. This value is one-third of the observed rate and demonstrates that the mechanism in Scheme 3.11 is incorrect or at least not complete. Similar analysis for the deoxygenation of styrene oxide led to the same conclusion; none of the *syn*-diolates alone are able to account for the observed catalytic rate. Another mechanistic possibility could be a contribution from both the *syn*- and *anti*-diolate complexes as shown in Scheme 3.12. In this case the rate equation is equal to $d[\text{Alkene}]/dt = k_{\text{cyclo}}[\text{syn-Diolate}] + k'_{\text{cyclo}}[\text{anti-Diolate}]$. If we assume that $[\text{Re}]_{\text{T}} = [\text{syn-Diolate}] + [\text{anti-Diolate}]$ then we can solve for the relative concentrations of each diolate necessary to obtain the observed rate constant. For styrene oxide the observed turnover frequency for 0.009 M total rhenium was 3.9×10^{-8} M/s. To obtain the observed turnover frequency under catalytic conditions, the concentration of the *anti*-diolate ($[\text{anti-Diolate}] = 4.85 \times 10^{-3}$ M) would have to equal the *syn*-diolate concentration ($[\text{syn-Diolate}] = 4.15 \times 10^{-3}$ M). Obviously, this mechanistic model is also incorrect since the only observed rhenium species is the

syn-diolate. Therefore, some additional alkene-forming process besides cycloreversion of the *syn*-diolate must be operating.

Scheme 3.12



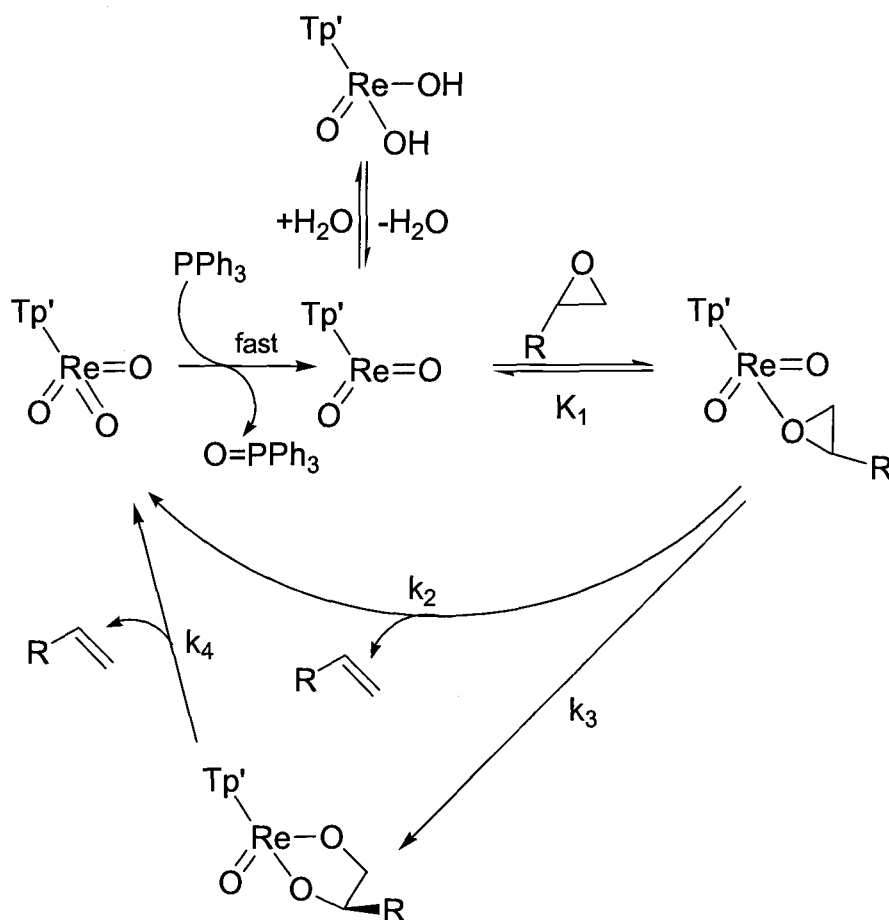
3.16 Burst Experiment

Further evidence to support an additional alkene-forming process besides diolate cycloreversion was demonstrated by two burst experiments. First, the ethoxide complex $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}(\text{OH})(\text{OEt})$, which was introduced in Chapter 2, was allowed to react with *cis*-stilbene oxide for 30 min at 75°C. Both the formation of *cis*-stilbene and the *syn*-diphenyldiolate **3-5** was observed. Of the 28% of the epoxide converted to alkene only about 5% of the total amount of *syn*-diolate produced could have formed from diolate cycloreversion in that time. Therefore, a ratio between the amount of stilbene produced immediately and the amount of *syn*-diolate produced from ring expansion could be determined. The stilbene/diolate ratio was found to be 3.8. A second experiment using $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3/\text{PPh}_3$ was also performed. In this case, the sample was heated to 75°C for only 15 min. Once again, we know that any alkene formed must have originated from some other process than cycloreversion of the diolate since cycloreversion is slow under these conditions. After six minutes of heating and a 17% conversion of epoxide, the stilbene/diolate ratio was determined to be 4.4. The significance of these results is that the alternative deoxygenation process is about four times faster than ring expansion of the epoxide to form the *syn*-diolate.

3.17 Direct Fragmentation of the Coordinated Epoxide

Direct fragmentation of the coordinated epoxide complex is proposed as the alternative alkene-forming process. The new mechanistic model is shown in Scheme 3.13. Fast reduction of Tp'ReO_3 with PPh_3 generates free Tp'ReO_2 . In the presence of any adventitious water, Tp'ReO_2 can form the oxo bis-hydroxide complex but loss of water is a very facile process. Reaction of Tp'ReO_2 with free epoxide generates the coordinated epoxide complex, which can either ring expand to form diolate or undergo direct O-atom transfer. A steady-state distribution of diolate and coordinated epoxide is eventually reached. The new mechanistic proposal can account for a series of important observations.

Scheme 3.13



First, the model can adequately account for the “burst” of alkene production observed in the early stages of the reaction. Initial reduction converts all of the rhenium to $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_2$ and coordinated epoxide complex (the ratio of each is dependent on the concentration of epoxide). Since we know from the burst experiments that the ratio of k_2/k_3 is roughly 4, then during the early stages of the reaction most of the rhenium exists as coordinated epoxide complex and undergoes

preferential direct fragmentation to alkene and trioxide. At the same time, rhenium is slowly being funneled into the *syn*-diolate, which accumulates. Eventually a steady-state is reached where the rate of diolate cycloreversion is equal to the rate of ring expansion (diolate formation) from the coordinated epoxide complex. This is expressed by the steady-state expression for *syn*-diolate (Eq. 4).

$$k_3[\text{LReO}_2\text{-epoxide}] = k_4[\text{diolate}] \quad (4)$$

Since the two product-forming steps are direct fragmentation of the coordinated epoxide complex and cycloreversion of the diolate, then the rate expression is given by Eq. (5).

$$d[\text{Alkene}]/dt = k_2[\text{LReO}_2\text{-epoxide}] + k_4[\text{diolate}] \quad (5)$$

Substituting the steady-state expression for [diolate] (Eq. 4) into the rate expression (Eq. 5) we obtain the following reduced rate expression

$$d[\text{Alkene}]/dt = (k_2 + k_3)[\text{LReO}_2\text{-epoxide}] \quad (6)$$

The rate expression shows why a first-order dependence of the rate on the concentration of rhenium was observed. The absence of a $[\text{PPh}_3]$ term explains the observed zero-order dependence. Furthermore, the rate expression accounts for the

saturation behavior in epoxide. At high epoxide concentrations, free Tp'ReO_2 is bound with epoxide and the concentration of the coordinated epoxide complex becomes constant. The $[\text{LReO}_2\text{-epoxide}]$ term can now be substituted by $\{[\text{Re}]_{\text{T}} - [\text{diolate}]\}$. This explains the zero-order behavior at high epoxide concentrations. Conversely, the epoxide complex is in equilibrium with free Tp'ReO_2 at low concentrations of epoxide (Eq. 7).

$$k_1[\text{Tp'ReO}_2][\text{epoxide}] = k_{-1}[\text{Tp'ReO}_2\text{-epoxide}] \quad (7)$$

Substituting the equilibrium expression (Eq. 7) into Eq. (6), we obtain a new rate expression for low epoxide concentrations (Eq. 8). The rate expression contains a first-order term for epoxide concentration and explains why first-order behavior is observed at low concentrations of epoxide.

$$d[\text{Alkene}]/dt = (K_1k_2 + K_1k_3)[\text{Tp'ReO}_2][\text{epoxide}] \quad (8)$$

We were also able to confirm the burst experiment results, which showed competitive ring expansion and direct fragmentation, using the derived rate expression (Eq. 6). Under catalytic conditions, *cis*-stilbene oxide was deoxygenated at 75.3°C. The diolate concentration was measured (vs. internal standard) as the reaction progressed and the steady-state concentration of the diolate was determined to be 4.9×10^{-3} M (average of 11 measurements over the

course of the reaction) out of a total rhenium concentration of 8.5×10^{-3} M (2.2 ± 0.5 mg/0.5 mL based on Tp'ReO_3). Since the 0.18 M epoxide signal dominates the ^1H NMR spectrum, the other rhenium species (Tp'ReO_2 -epoxide and Tp'ReO_2) could lie below the detection limits. This rationalizes why the *syn*-diolate is the only observed rhenium species (Tp'ReO_2 might be paramagnetic and NMR silent, though calculations say it is diamagnetic). The turnover rate for the catalytic deoxygenation of *cis*-stilbene oxide was determined to be 1.4×10^{-6} M/s. The final piece of information required is the rate constant k_4 for *syn-cis*-diphenyldiolate, which was already determined to be $6.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Table 3.2). Rearranging Eq. (6) gives

$$k_2[\text{Tp'ReO}_2\text{-epoxide}] = \text{rate} - k_4[\text{diolate}] \quad (9)$$

Dividing Eq. (9) by Eq. (4) gives a k_2/k_3 ratio of 3.8. The ratio matches the stilbene/diolate ratio obtained previously, from the burst experiment, when Tp'ReO(OH)(OEt) reacted with *cis*-stilbene oxide. Even though we were successful in using the rate expression and data to confirm the ratio of k_2/k_3 , attempts to model the concentration vs time plots observed from the catalytic reaction using our data have been unsuccessful. The major limitations are making good estimates for the equilibrium constant, the concentration of the epoxide complex, and the rate constants k_2 and k_3 . Another complication is dissolution of insoluble Tp'ReO_3 during the initial reduction by PPh_3 .

The competition experiment between *cis*-stilbene oxide and styrene oxide is also consistent with the new mechanistic model. The turnover frequency will be determined by three factors: (1) binding of the epoxide, (2) direct fragmentation of the coordinated epoxide complex and (3) ring expansion of the coordinated epoxide. In the presence of another epoxide, competitive binding of the epoxide dictates which epoxide will be deoxygenated more readily by effectively removing the majority of rhenium. However, the model is less successful in describing the V-shaped Hammett plot. The kinetic study already demonstrated there is a fine balance between ring expansion and direct fragmentation. Both electron-donating and electron-withdrawing substituents could distort the balance so that one process was favored over the other. The other possibility is that the reactions were not run at saturation or that the level of saturation is different for each substituted epoxide. Since the rate of deoxygenation is a composite of all three individual processes, if saturation is not reached then the concentration of [Tp'ReO₂-epoxide] will be different for each epoxide tested thus effecting the rate (see Eq. 6).

3.18 Eyring Plots

The catalytic deoxygenation of *cis*-stilbene oxide was also carried out at five different temperatures in the range of 65-95°C (Figure 3.13). The enthalpy of activation (ΔH^\ddagger) was obtained by plotting the $\ln(k/T)$ vs $1/T$. This value was then used to calculate the entropy of activation (ΔS^\ddagger) using the Eyring equation.¹¹³ The

activation parameters determined were $\Delta H^\ddagger = 27.94 \pm 0.9$ kcal/mol and $\Delta S^\ddagger = -5.31 \pm 2.56$ cal/(mol K). Surprisingly, the activation parameters are very similar to the activation parameters reported for the cycloreversion of diolates.⁸³ Cycloreversion of diolates was recently determined to be a concerted process and direct fragmentation might also proceed through a concerted mechanism. The low ΔH^\ddagger is characteristic of a concerted process.¹¹⁴ The negative entropy of activation would suggest some loss of translation and rotational degrees of freedom in the transition state, but the pre-equilibrium will also effect the thermodynamic properties ($\Delta S_{\text{obs}}^\ddagger = \Delta S_1^\circ + \Delta S_2^\ddagger$). The activation parameters for the cycloreversion of *syn*-monophenyldiolate **3-3** were also determined (Figure 3.14). Between 75 and 105°C, $\Delta H^\ddagger = 31.8$ kcal/mol and $\Delta S^\ddagger = 4.16$ cal/(mol K). The activation parameters are very similar to other diolate cycloreversion, but higher ΔH^\ddagger than for anti. Overall, the activation parameters by themselves offer little mechanistic information without comparison to other substrates.

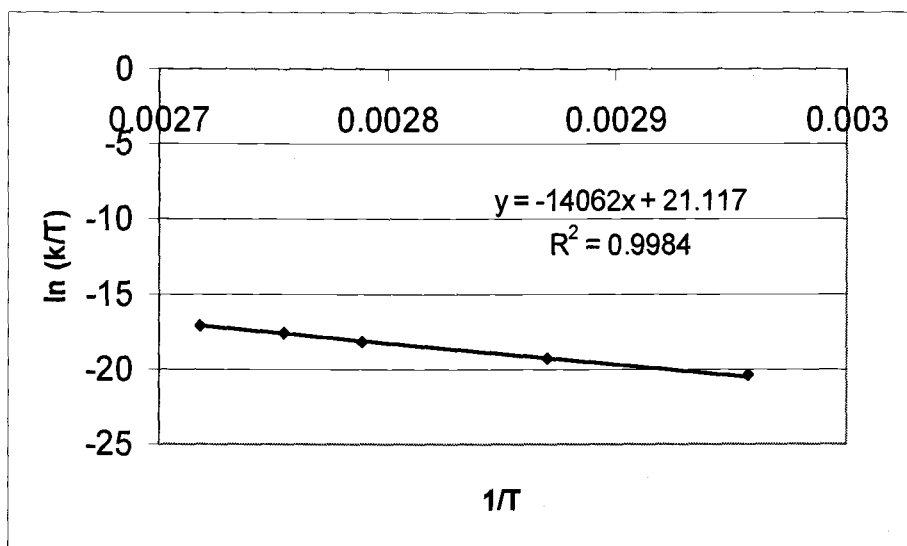


Figure 3.13 Eyring plot for catalytic deoxygenation of *cis*-stilbene oxide.

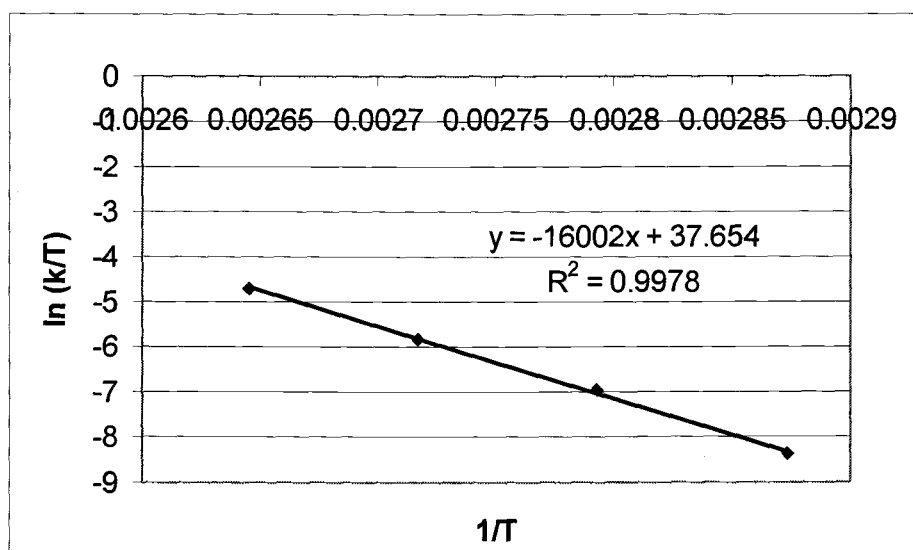


Figure 3.14 Eyring plot for cycloreversion of *syn*-monophenyldiolate 3-3.

3.19 Computational Results

A computational study of the intermediates and transition states in Scheme 3.13 was undertaken at the B3LYP/LACVP*+ level using ethylene oxide as the epoxide and the (nonmethylated) Tp ligand.¹¹⁵ Table 3.3 lists the calculated energies for the intermediates and transition states. A transition state search yielded two different transition states from the coordinated epoxide complex. One is the direct fragmentation transition state, which is symmetric with respect to cleavage of the C-O bonds and is 13.8 kcal/mol higher than the other transition state. The second transition state is that for ring expansion of epoxide. The structure indicates substantial asymmetry in the cleavage of the C-O bonds. One C-O bond is short (1.578 Å, versus 1.455 Å in the epoxide complex) and the other is extremely long (1.944 Å). Migration to the terminal oxo is evident, but little bond development has occurred (C-O = 3.241 Å). The structure would be consistent with a transition state containing carbocationic character (see below). The transition state structures for both processes are shown in Figure 3.15.

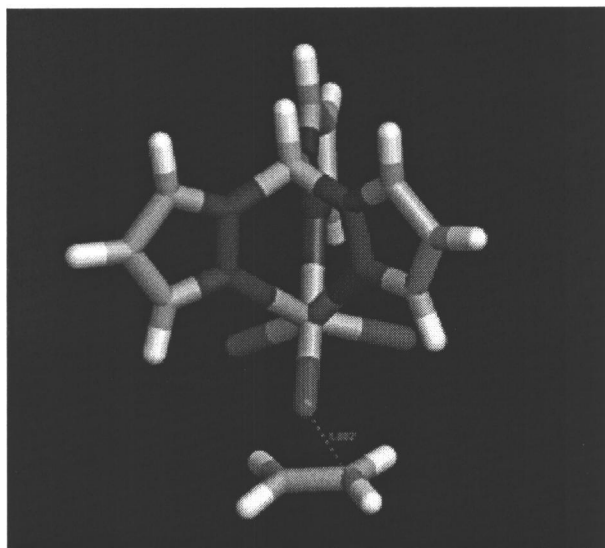
The relative transition state energies argue against direct fragmentation being the faster of the two processes; yet, experimentally it has been determined that direct fragmentation is 4 times faster than ring expansion. The source of the discrepancy is probably a result of the two simplifications used to minimize the computational cost. The first is the use of ethylene oxide as the epoxide. The absence of the phenyl groups will have a major effect on the energies of the

transition states. Second, the steric impact of the ligand methyl groups on the transition state energies is ignored by using the nonmethylated ligand. However, the results do demonstrate that two transition states are accessible from the coordinated epoxide complex, which is consistent with the mechanistic model in Scheme 3.13.

Table 3.3 Calculated energies for species in Scheme 3.13.

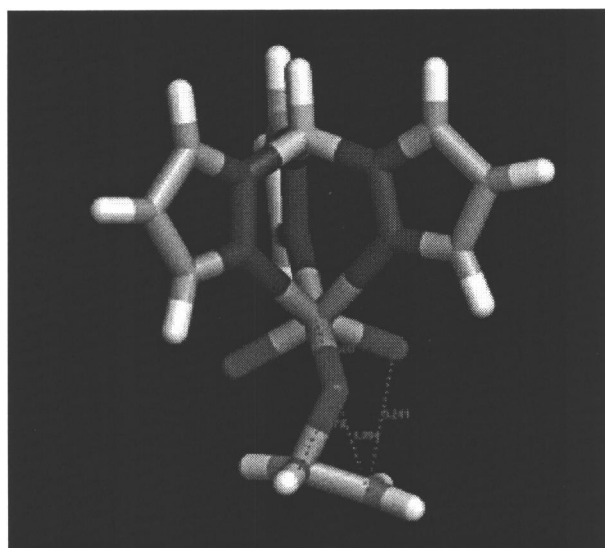
Compound	E, Hartree ^a	ZPE ^b	E _{rel} ^c	E _{rel} , corrected ^d
TpReO ₂	-932.0351	141.6	---	---
CH ₂ CH ₂ O	-153.7952	34.8	---	---
TpRe(OCH ₂ CH ₂)	-1085.8290	181.9	+0.82	+6.4
TpRe(O)(OCH ₂ CH ₂ O)	-1085.8995	181.9	-43.4	-37.5
TS1: TpReO ₂ ···OCH ₂ CH ₂ O (coordination of epoxide)	-1085.8280	186.8	+1.44	+11.9
TS2: TpReO ₂ O···CH ₂ CH ₂ (symmetric C-O cleavage)	-1085.7938	186.8	+22.9	+33.3
TS3: TpReO ₂ OCH ₂ CH ₂ (asymmetric C-O cleavage)	-1085.8018	177.9	+17.9	+19.5
^a B3LYP/LACVP*+				
^b kcal/mol				
^c kcal/mol, TpReO ₂ + CH ₂ CH ₂ O = 0 kcal/mol				
^d E _{rel} + ZPE, TpReO ₂ + CH ₂ CH ₂ O = 0 kcal/mol				

A.



C-O 1.833 Å,
C-C 1.398 Å,
Re-O 1.946 Å,
Re=O 1.735 Å

B.



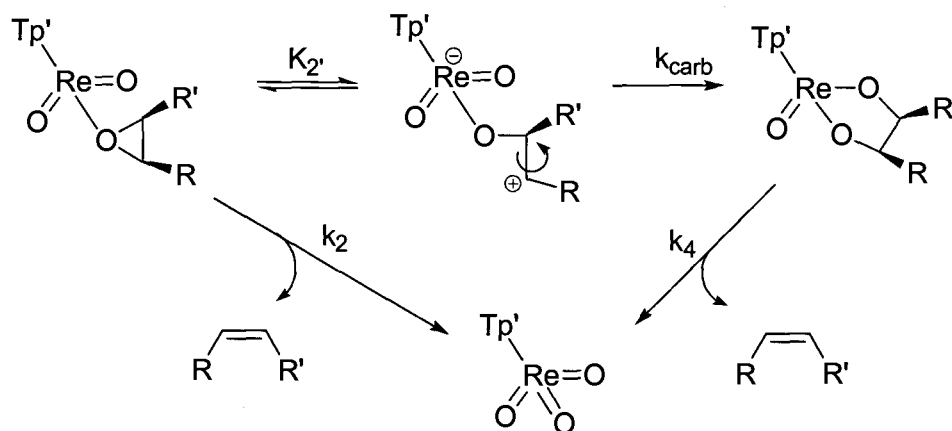
C-O 1.482, 1.992 Å;
C-O(=Re) 3.397 Å;
Re=O 1.729, 1.739 Å;
Re-O 2.001 Å

Figure 3.15 Optimized transition state structures for (A) concerted fragmentation and (B) ring expansion.

3.20 Possible Carbocation Intermediate Involved in Ring Expansion

The transition state structure for ring expansion shows possible carbocationic character, which would be consistent in explaining why deoxygenation of *cis*- and *trans*-butene oxide was not completely stereospecific. A possible mechanism would be reversible formation of a carbocation intermediate, which can undergo bond rotation resulting in loss of stereochemistry (Scheme 3.14). The observation of minor amounts of *cis*-butene oxide in the ^1H NMR during the deoxygenation of *trans*-butene oxide indicated that isomerization was occurring to the epoxide rather than the alkene. The observation supports reversible formation of a carbocation intermediate. The activation barrier from the carbocationic intermediate to the diolate is probably much larger for the butene oxides than the stilbene oxides; therefore, the carbocation intermediate for the butene oxides waits around longer and undergoes isomerization.

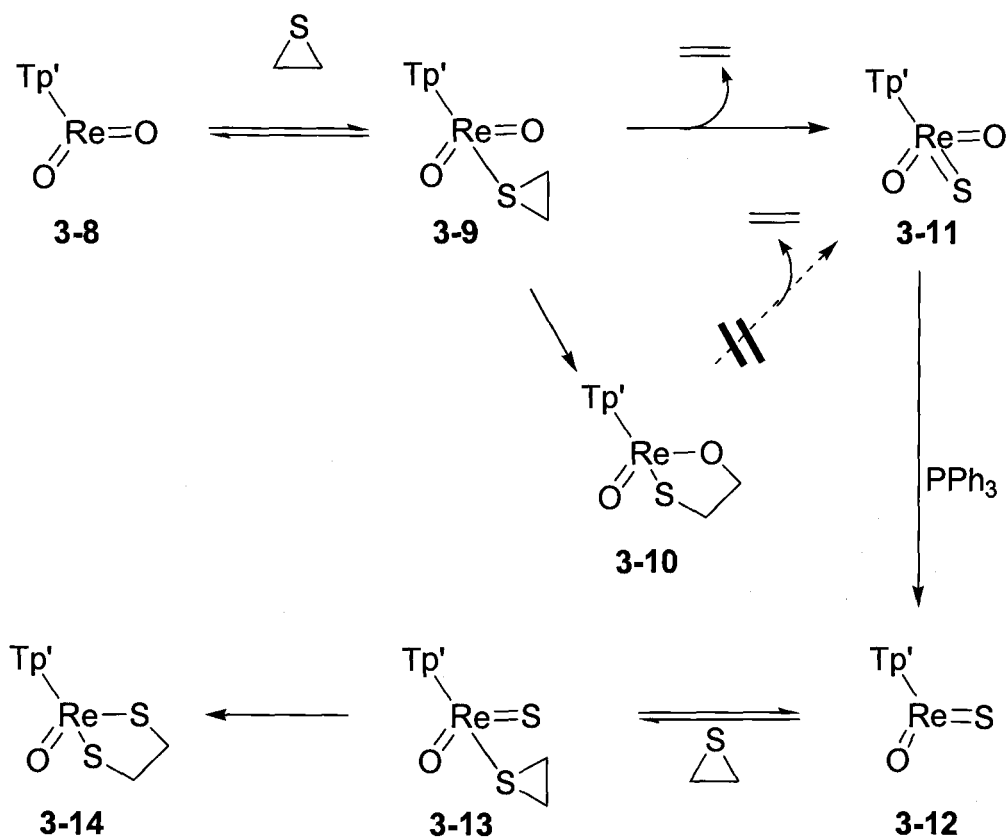
Scheme 3.14



3.21 Experimental Evidence Supporting Direct O-atom Transfer

Reaction of $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3/\text{PPh}_3$ and ethylene sulfide at room temperature led to the formation of Tp' rhenium ethanedithiolate (**3-14**) in a 30% yield.¹¹⁶ Similar to epoxide deoxygenations, ring expansion and direct fragmentation are two possible mechanisms that can lead to the observed product (Scheme 3.15). However, mono- and dithiodiolate complexes were shown to be thermally stable (no cycloreversion to alkene) for more than a week at 120°C .¹¹⁷ Since **3-10** is unable to cyclorevert to **3-11**, then direct fragmentation from the episulfide complex **3-9** to **3-11** must be occurring. This process is analogous to what it is observed in our catalytic system.

Scheme 3.15



3.22 Conclusions

The reduction of Tp'ReO_3 with phosphines or phosphites generates a rhenium(V) species that is capable of deoxygenating epoxides in a catalytic fashion. The kinetic behavior of the catalytic system is complex and a V-shaped Hammett plot indicates a change in mechanism or competing processes. First-order behavior in $[\text{Re}]_{\text{T}}$, zero-order dependence in $[\text{PPh}_3]$ and saturation kinetics for

epoxide were observed. This type of saturation behavior is typical for Michaelis-Menten kinetics which proceeds through reversible formation of an enzyme-substrate intermediate. In analogy, the reversible formation of a coordinated epoxide complex was proposed to explain the saturation kinetics. Evidence for its existence will be further explored in Chapter 4. The epoxide complex was then shown experimentally and computationally to engage in two separate reactions: ring expansion to form a *syn*-diolate complex, and direct fragmentation to alkene and trioxide. A steady-state concentration of diolate is eventually reached explaining the “burst” of alkene production. The diolate formed is the *syn*-isomer, which is the kinetically formed product. Steric factors between the substituents on the epoxide and the terminal oxo groups control formation of the *syn*-diolate. Direct fragmentation is the primary source of alkene. The direct fragmentation process was determined to be four times faster than ring expansion for *cis*-stilbene oxide deoxygenations. Computational modeling is consistent with the proposed mechanism.

The significance of these results is that the interaction of an oxo metal complex (LMO_3) with an alkene can potentially occur by a competition of an epoxidation pathway and bishydroxylation pathway. Cp^*ReO_3 and Tp^*ReO_3 were shown to add to strained alkenes. The typical mechanism would be concerted [3+2] olefin addition to the two oxo groups, while the other mechanism would be [2+1] addition to a single oxo group to form a coordinated epoxide followed by ring expansion. A similar comparison can be made to alkene addition to OsO_4 . A

relationship between the two epoxidation and bishydroxylation has been suggested,¹¹⁸ but experimental evidence before now has argued against such a relationship.

Chapter 4. Epoxide-Tethered Ligand Complex

4.1 Introduction

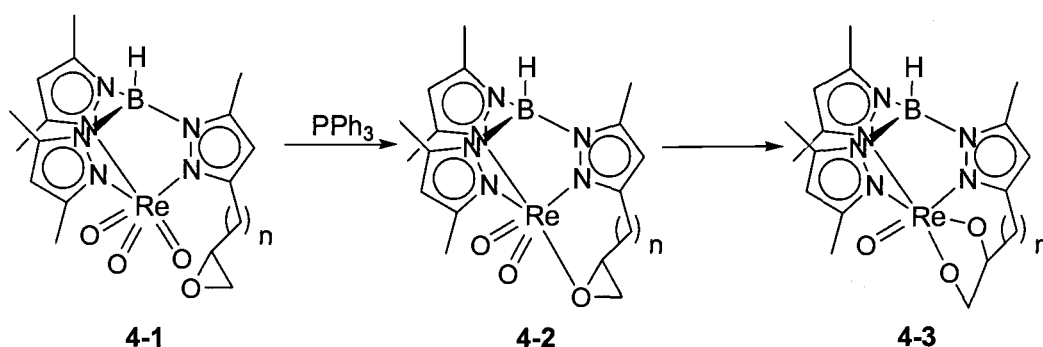
Polydentate ligands containing two types of inequivalent donors, one tightly bound to the metal center and the second weakly bonded, can stabilize coordinatively unsaturated metal complexes by temporarily blocking the coordination site. Phosphine ligands with tethered functional groups capable of binding to the metal have found numerous applications in homogenous catalysis.¹¹⁹ Likewise, a cyclopentadienyl ligand containing a tethered olefin has been successfully used to isolate the elusive d^0 metal-olefin complex in Ziegler-Natta olefin polymerization reactions.¹²⁰ A similar approach of attaching a ligand containing a tethered “semi-labile” functional group to rhenium will be applied to our system.

4.2 Objectives of Tethered Epoxide Study

Numerous objectives for constructing a ligand with a tethered functional group exist for our system. First, a ligand containing a pendant functionalized side-chain might allow the direct observation or isolation of possible intermediates involved in rhenium-catalyzed epoxide deoxygenations. For example, the isolation of the proposed coordinated epoxide intermediate could be achieved by tethering an

epoxide to a Tp ligand (Scheme 4.1). This coordinated epoxide intermediate was proposed to explain the saturation kinetics observed with changes in epoxide concentration (Chapter 3), but the epoxide complex was never directly detected. Second, a comparison between the formation of the diolate from the epoxide and formation of the diolate from the alkene would help determine whether the coordinated epoxide was a viable intermediate in diolate cycloreversions. At the outset of this project, it was unclear whether the epoxide-to-diolate conversion was viable; exploring the reactivity of an isolable epoxide complex provides a rigorous test of its potential as a reactive intermediate in several reactions. Other important objectives include determining rate constants for individual steps, understanding how the epoxide binds to the metal and how entropy affects deoxygenations. Gable et al. had previously shown that diolate cycloreversions are thermoneutral and are driven by entropy.⁴¹ Tethering the diolate removes the entropic contribution and prevents cycloreversion. Likewise, intramolecular coordination of an epoxide should be faster and more favored over intermolecular coordination because of entropy.

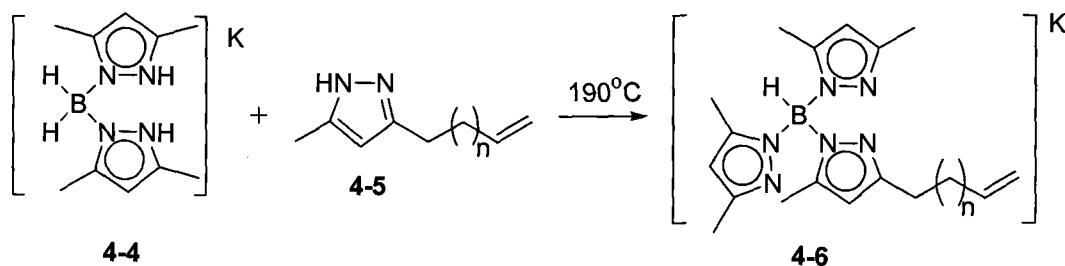
Scheme 4.1



4.3 Epoxide-Tethered Tp Complex

The first obstacle was developing a general approach for the synthesis of the ligand (4-6). A general outline of how the ligand would be constructed is shown in Scheme 4.2. The pyrazole containing the tethered alkene would be prepared by alkylation of the disodium salt of acetylacetone, followed by condensation with hydrazine. Potassium dihydrido-*bis*-(3,5-dimethyl-1-pyrazolyl)borate would be generated according to the procedure developed by Trofimenko.⁸⁴ Since polypyrazolylborates are formed by thermolysis of the pyrazole with metal borohydrides, temperatures above 190°C would be required. Possible polymerization of the tethered alkene was a major concern.

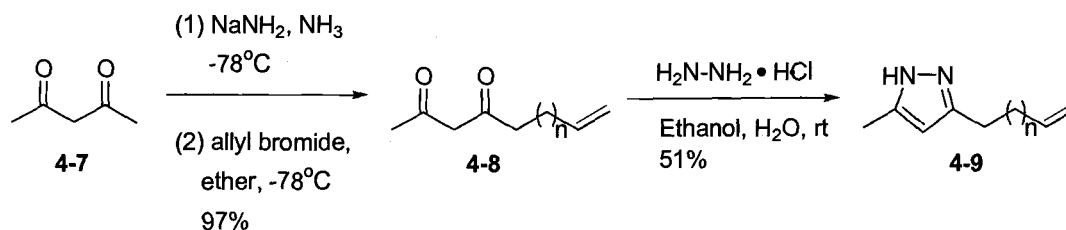
Scheme 4.2



The length of the tether was also an important consideration. Longer lengths ($n \geq 2$) were expected to allow enough flexibility for epoxide to diolate conversion. Conversely, a shorter tether ($n = 1$) would allow the epoxide to coordinate but would lack enough flexibility to undergo ring expansion to diolate. Since the conversion of the epoxide to the diolate might be extremely rapid, the shorter tether ($n = 2$) offers the best chance of observing the coordinated epoxide complex 4-2. In addition, the pyrazole with the shorter tether ($n = 2$) is the cheapest to synthesize.

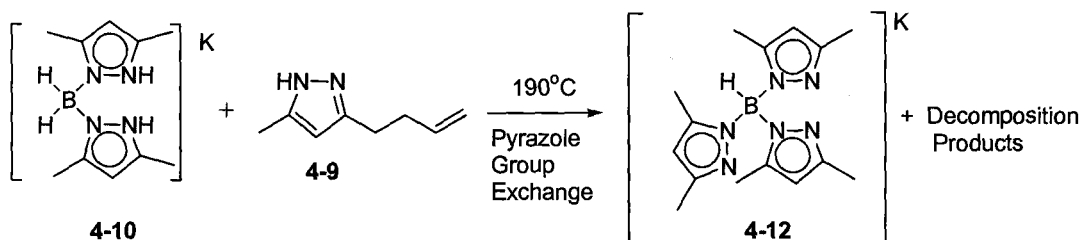
Commercially available anhydrous sodium amide was used to generate the dianion of acetylacetone in liquid ammonia at -78°C .¹²¹ The addition of allyl bromide in ether followed by the evaporation of the liquid ammonia yielded 1-octene-5,7-dione (4-8) in 97% yield. The substituted pyrazole was then prepared in a 51% by cyclocondensation of the dione with hydrazine monohydrochloride. The complete sequence is shown in Scheme 4-3.

Scheme 4.3



Once the pyrazole was made, potassium dihydrido-*bis*-(3,5-dimethyl-1-pyrazolyl)borate (**4-10**) was prepared in a 67% yield by heating 3,5-dimethylpyrazole with KBH_4 to $\sim 160^\circ\text{C}$ until hydrogen evolution ceased. The thermolysis of pyrazole **4-9** with potassium dihydrido-*bis*-(3,5-dimethyl-1-pyrazolyl)borate was unsuccessful. Numerous attempts were made under neat conditions and by refluxing the two compounds in toluene and anisole for multiple days. Surprisingly, the only observable product was potassium hydrido-*tris*-(3,5-dimethyl-1-pyrazolyl)borate **4-12** (Scheme 4.4). The remainder of the reaction has not been identified. Scrambling of the pyrazoles by reversible pyrazole group exchange has been reported for other potassium salts.¹²² Therefore, a reevaluation of our approach was in order.

Scheme 4.4

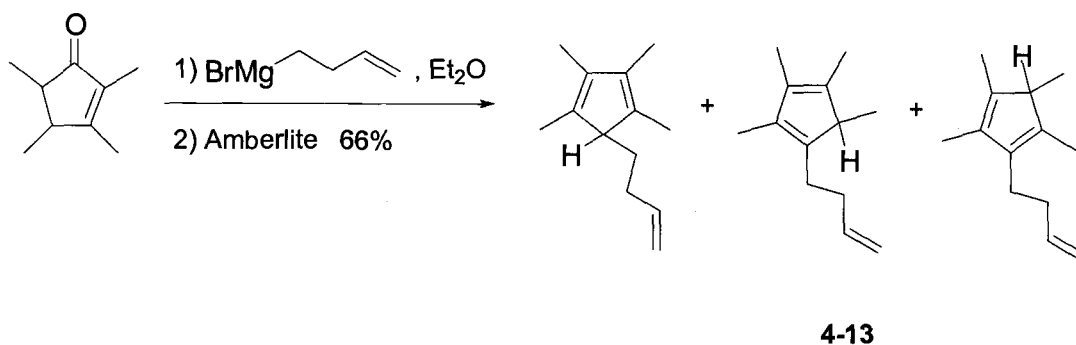


4.4 Epoxide-Tethered Cp* Complex

The synthesis of a peralkylated cyclopentadienyl ligand with a 3-butenyl side-chain was chosen as an alternative ligand. It avoids all the problems encountered with the poly(pyrazolyl)borate route, but comparisons to the catalytic process (where $L = \text{Tp}'$) are still possible. In addition, more direct comparisons can be made to the less efficient catalytic process that was catalyzed by Cp^*ReO_3 . Once again, the length of the tether was kept to a minimum ($n=2$) to ensure possible coordination of the epoxide, yet prevent ring expansion to the diolate.

The synthesis of 1-(3-butenyl)-2,3,4,5-tetramethylcyclopentadiene (**4-13**) has been previously reported.¹²³ The addition of 2,3,4,5-tetramethylcyclopent-2-enone to a diethyl ether solution of the homoallyl Grignard, followed by the addition of acidic ion-exchange resin Amberlite IR-120® resulted in a 66% yield of **4-13**. **4-13** exists as a mixture of three possible isomers (Scheme 4.5).

Scheme 4.5

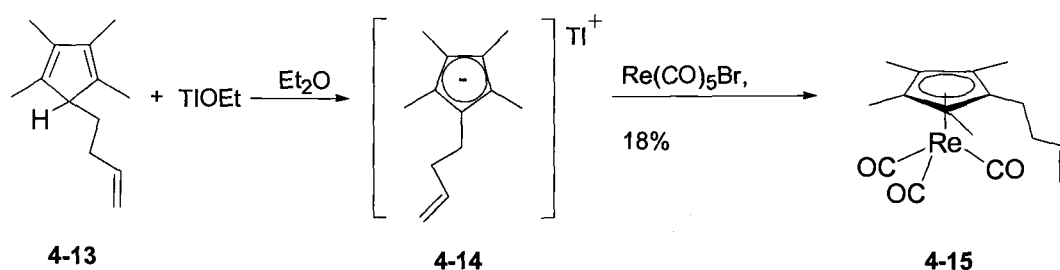


In the case of pentamethylcyclopentadiene, the metal is typically added to the ligand by reaction of $\text{Re}_2(\text{CO})_{10}$ with pentamethylcyclopentadiene at 150–210°C.¹²⁴ High yields (95%) are generally obtained. The reaction is a dramatic improvement over the other literature procedures^{125,126} [$(\text{CO})_5\text{ReCl} + \text{Li}^+\text{C}_5\text{Me}_5^-$, 4%; $(\text{CO})_5\text{ReCH}_3 + \text{C}_5\text{Me}_5\text{H}$; 26%]. Unfortunately, the substitution of **4-13** for pentamethylcyclopentadiene resulted in a low yield (yield = 9%; average of three runs). The addition of the mixed anhydride $\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{ReO}_3$ to a solution of 1-(3-butenyl)-2,3,4,5-tetramethylcyclopentadienylthallium, which was generated from 1-(3-butenyl)-2,3,4,5-tetramethylcyclopentadiene and thallium(I) ethoxide, resulted in unidentified products. A similar result was observed when $\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{ReO}_3$ reacted with $(\text{C}_5\text{Me}_5)\text{Sn}(n\text{-C}_4\text{H}_9)$.¹²⁷ A mismatch of redox potentials between Cp^*SnBu_3 and the acyl perrhenate was attributed to the failure.

The procedure which was eventually used is shown in Scheme 4.6. In situ formation of 1-(3-butenyl)-2,3,4,5-tetramethylcyclopentadienylthallium in

benzene, followed by the addition of rhenium pentacarbonyl bromide produced the tricarbonyl complex **4-15**. The thermodynamic driving force for this reaction is formation of insoluble thallium(I) bromide. The reaction is also low yielding, but is still an improvement over the $\text{Re}_2(\text{CO})_{10}$ procedure. Unfortunately, scaling up the reaction to obtain an appreciable amount of product was prohibitive because of the high cost of rhenium pentacarbonyl bromide.

Scheme 4.6



4-15 was fully characterized by NMR and IR spectroscopy as well as FAB mass spectroscopy. In the IR spectrum two metal carbonyl stretching frequencies were observed at 2010 and 1918 cm^{-1} and were comparable to the values reported for $(\text{C}_5\text{Me}_4\text{Et})\text{Re}(\text{CO})_3$ ($\nu = 2014$ and 1923 cm^{-1}).¹²⁸ The carbonyl stretching frequencies were about 23 cm^{-1} less than those corresponding to $(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)\text{Re}(\text{CO})_3$ ($\nu = 2034$ and 1941 cm^{-1}).¹²⁹ Increasing the alkyl substitution on the ligand increases the electron density on the metal. This increases the amount of π -backbonding from rhenium to the carbon monoxide ligands which in turn lowers the carbon-

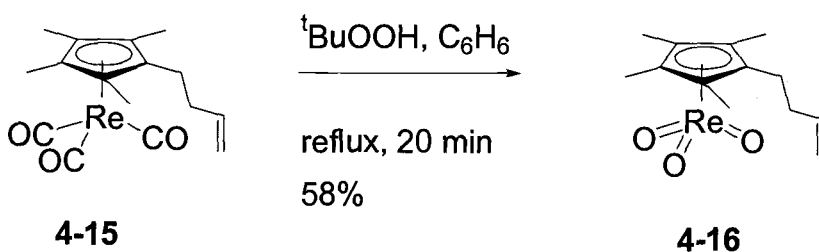
oxygen bond order and hence the carbonyl stretching frequency. NMR and IR spectroscopic data clearly indicate that the 3-butenyl substituent of the ligand is not interacting with the rhenium center. Rhenium alkene complexes of the general formula $\text{LRe}(\text{CO})_2(\eta^2\text{-alkene})$ show a large up-field shift for the alkene protons in the ^1H NMR spectrum.¹³⁰

Oxidative decarbonylation of carbonyl rhenium(I) complexes has been achieved using a variety of oxidizing reagents. The highest yielding procedures are either oxidation of $\text{LRe}(\text{CO})_3$ with 100% hydrogen peroxide/MTO¹³¹ or with Mn_2O_7 .¹³² Unfortunately, both procedures risk a possible explosion hazard. Alternative oxidizing reagents, which operate under safer and milder conditions, include ozone¹³³, H_2O_2 ¹³⁴ and $t\text{BuOOH}$ ¹³⁵. Unfortunately, the yields are generally $\leq 50\%$. One procedure that has been successfully used in our group to achieve high yields of the desired trioxide is the use of a catalytic amount of Re_2O_7 and *bis*-trimethylsilyl peroxide (BTMSP). Sharpless et al. had reported that inorganic rhenium oxides (e.g., Re_2O_7 , $\text{ReO}_3(\text{OH})$ and ReO_3) and BTMSP effectively epoxidized olefins.¹³⁶ The same conditions were shown to effectively decarbonylate $\text{Cp}^*\text{Re}(\text{CO})_3$ to the trioxide in a 85% yield.⁸² Consequently, Re_2O_7 /BTMSP was originally used to oxidatively decarbonylate **4-15**. An additional advantage of using the Re_2O_7 /BTMSP procedure is that epoxidation of the 3-butenyl substituent could also occur saving an additional step later.

A test reaction combining 20mg of **4-15**, 1 mole percent of Re_2O_7 and twenty equivalents of BTMSP in CH_2Cl_2 at 0°C generated the trioxide complex

4-16 (no evidence of alkene epoxidation was seen). The IR spectrum showed the disappearance of the CO stretches of **4-15** (2010 and 1918 cm^{-1}) and the appearance of new Re=O peaks (909 and 879 cm^{-1}). However, attempts to scale up the reaction using $\text{Re}_2\text{O}_7/\text{BTMSP}$ were unsuccessful. Eventually the $t\text{BuOOH}$ procedure was used instead.¹³⁵ The reproducible decarbonylation of **4-15** by refluxing a benzene solution of $t\text{BuOOH}$ and **4-15** was achieved in a 58% yield (Scheme 4.7). The yield was a 28% improvement compared to the value reported for $\text{Cp}^*\text{Re}(\text{CO})_3$ decarbonylation (30%).

Scheme 4.7



Epoxidation of the 3-butenyl side-chain in **4-16** by 3-chloroperoxybenzoic acid (MCPBA) afforded **4-17** in a 46% yield (Scheme 4.8). The compound was moderately oxygen-sensitive and decomposed if concentrated under reduced pressure using a rotary evaporator. The ^1H NMR spectrum clearly shows a coupling pattern typical of a mono-substituted epoxide (Figure 4.1), while in the ^{13}C NMR spectrum two new signals at δ 52 and 47 ppm were assigned to the

epoxide carbons. The two diastereotopic methylenic protons at δ 1.29 and 1.12 ppm in the ^1H NMR spectrum consistently over-integrated (each resonance over-integrated by 1H) because of a broad hump in the baseline. A 2D COSY experiment was performed to show that the two resonances at δ 1.29 and 1.12 ppm belong to the complex **4-17** (Figure 4.2). Correlations were observed with each other and also with the resonances at δ 2.29 and 2.33 ppm. The IR spectrum showed two oxo stretches at 908 and 877 cm^{-1} , almost identical to the alkene precursor **4-15**.

Scheme 4.8

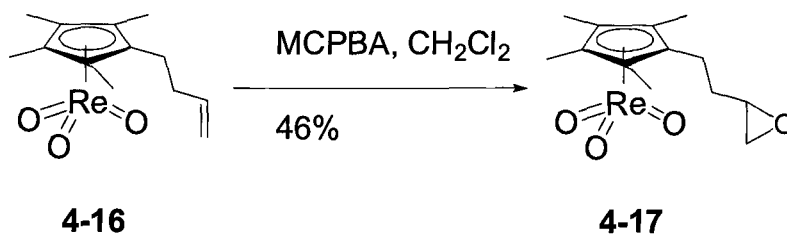
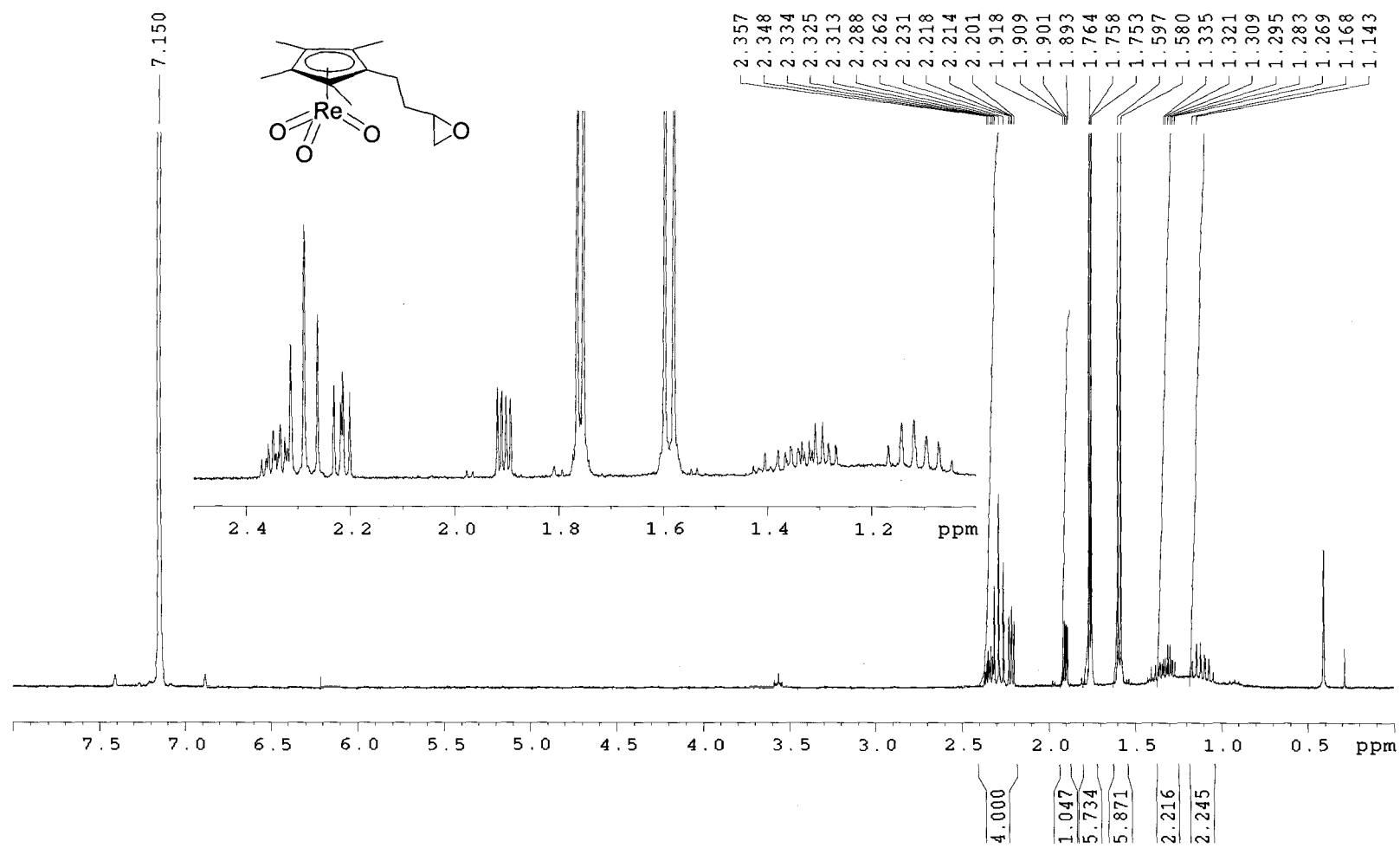


Figure 4.1 ^1H NMR spectrum of 4-17 in C_6D_6 .



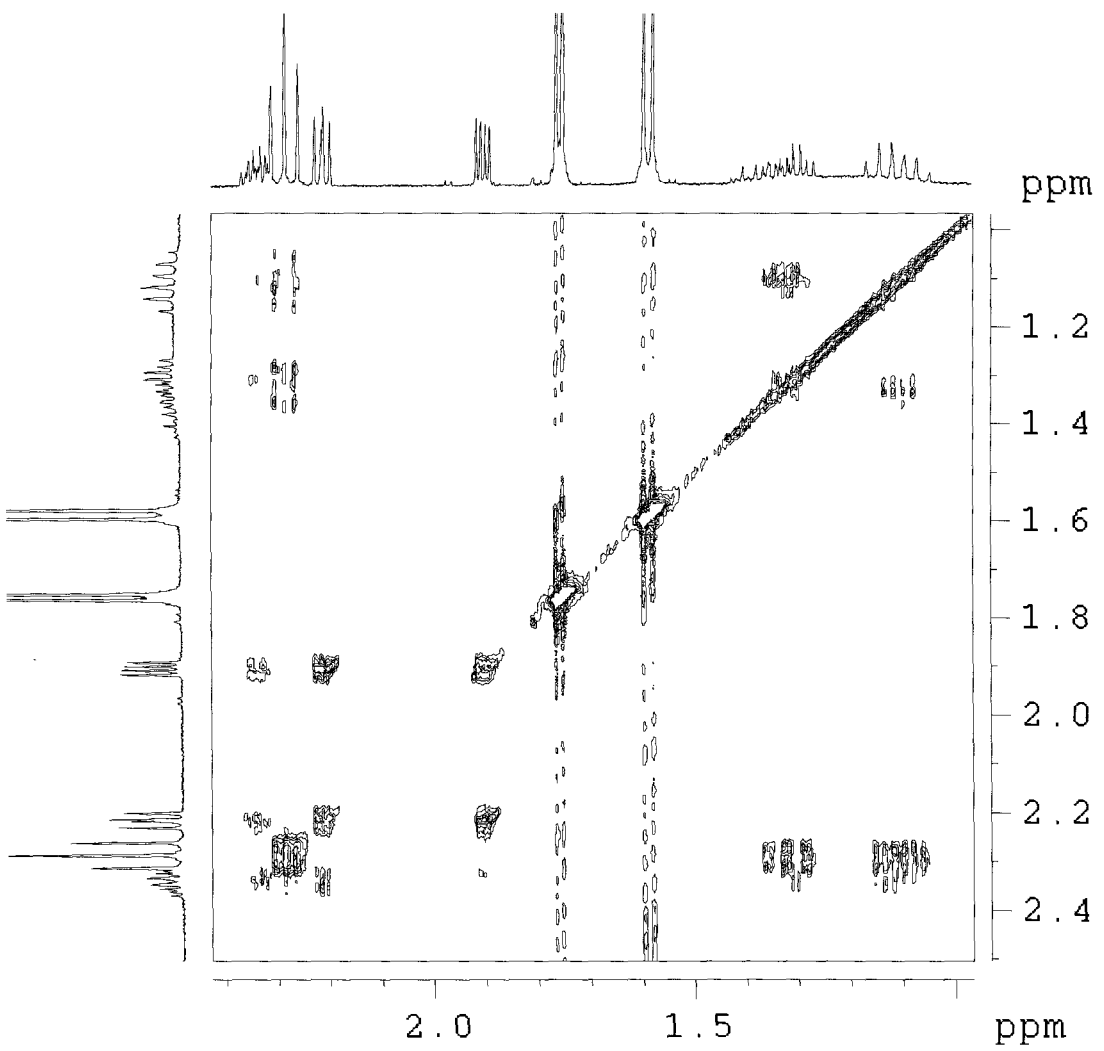


Figure 4.2 COSY spectrum of 4-17 in C_6D_6 .

4.5 Coordinated Epoxide Complex

Reduction of the epoxide derivative **4-17** with triphenylphosphine or polymer supported triphenylphosphine generates the formally 16-electron species **4-18** which is immediately trapped by intramolecular coordination of the epoxide to form complex **4-19** (Scheme 4.9). The coordinated epoxide complex is oxygen-sensitive and could be converted quantitatively to **4-17** by exposing solutions to air for 15hr. Purification of complex **4-19** has so far been unsuccessful; chromatographic separation proved to be unsatisfactory (complex **4-19** failed to elute from the column). The IR spectrum for **4-19** showed only a single Re=O stretch at 932 cm^{-1} (**4-17** shows two oxo stretches at 908 and 877 cm^{-1}). The high-frequency oxo stretch in the IR spectra for **4-19** indicates an increase in the rhenium-oxygen bond strength. This would be consistent with a dioxo complex since removal of an oxo group will reduce the competition of the remaining oxo groups to π -bond into the empty d orbitals. The observation of only one oxo stretch may be a result of the symmetric and asymmetric stretches occurring at similar frequencies (the separation between the two stretches may be small giving the appearance of one oxo stretch) or that one of the stretches is extremely weak (a small stretch is observed at 872 cm^{-1} , but isotopic substitution would be required to determine if the stretch was a Re=O stretch). The ^1H NMR spectrum reveals that intramolecular coordination of the epoxide has occurred (Figure 4.3). The figure compares the ^1H NMR spectra of **4-19** with **4-17**. A significant downfield shift of

the three resonances for the epoxide (δ 2.60, 2.29 and 2.04 ppm) was observed, indicating complexation of the epoxide to the rhenium center. A 2D COSY experiment allowed the assignment of all the signals and verified that one of the epoxide proton resonances lies directly underneath the resonance at δ 2.03 ppm (Figure 4.4). In addition, a change in the coupling pattern is observed for the two diastereotopic methylenic protons closest to the peralkylated cyclopentadienyl ring. In compound **4-17** the side-chain is freely rotating in space and the chemical shifts and coupling constants of the two diastereotopic protons become averaged. This explains the triplet at δ 2.29 ppm which is observed in the ^1H NMR spectra (Figure 4.1). Conversely, in compound **4-19** the side-chain is locked in one particular confirmation and enhances the non-equivalence of the two diastereotopic methylenic protons closest to the ring. High resolution mass spectroscopy confirms a molecular formula consistent with the compound proposed as **4-19**.

Scheme 4.9

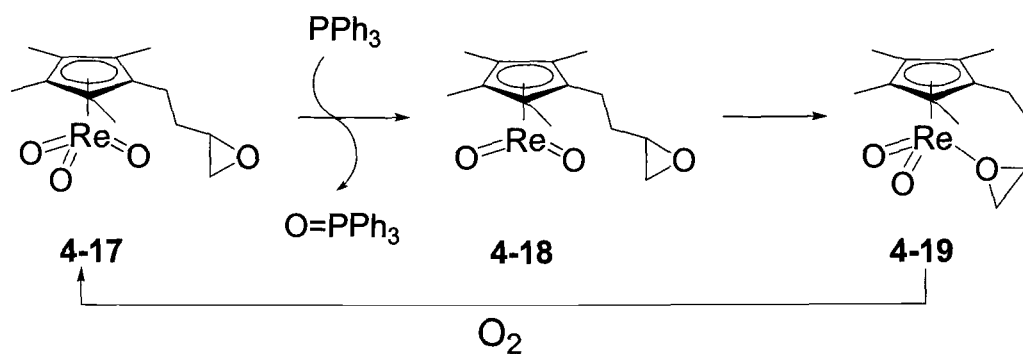
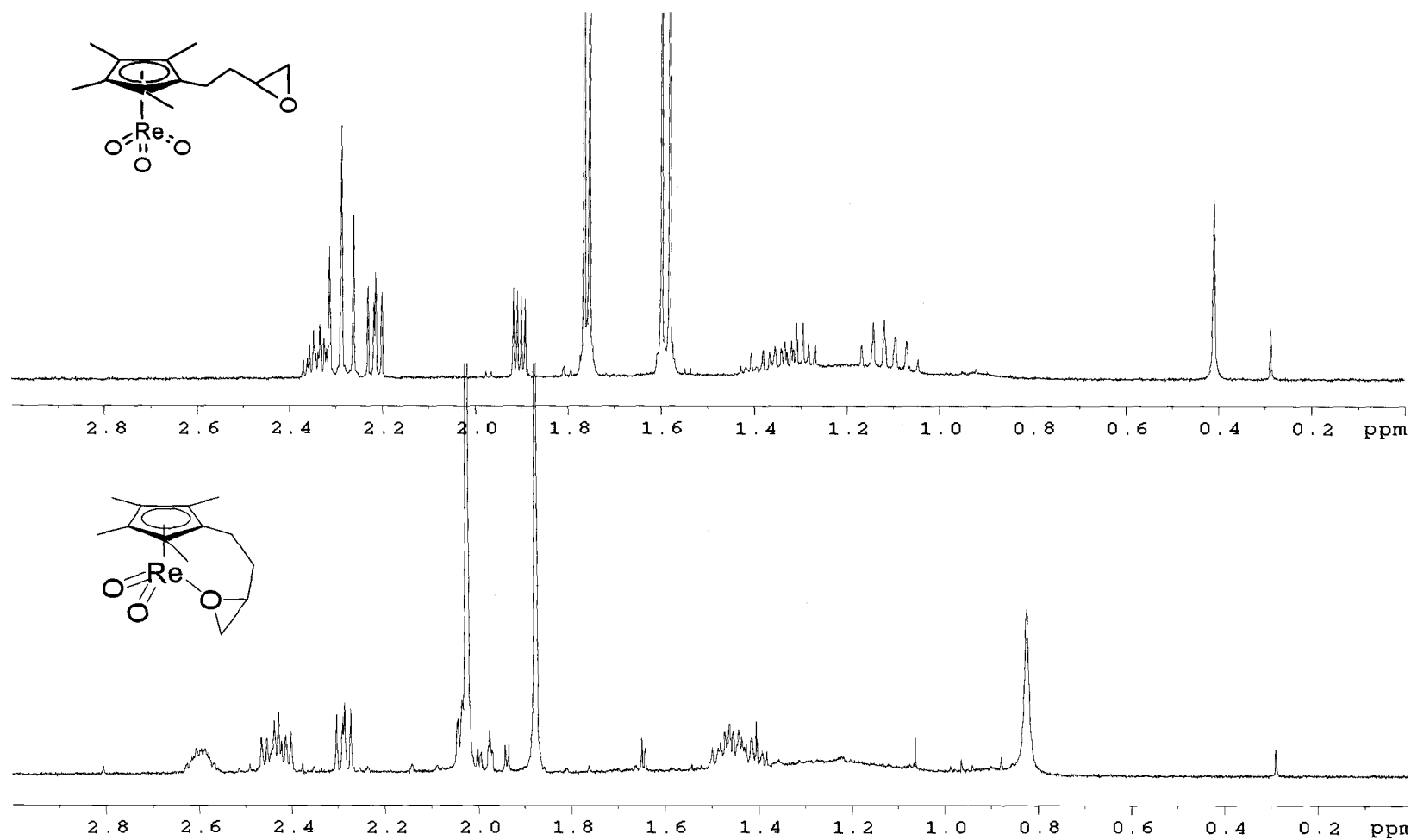


Figure 4.3 ^1H NMR spectrum of **4-17**(top) and **4-19**(bottom) in C_6D_6 .



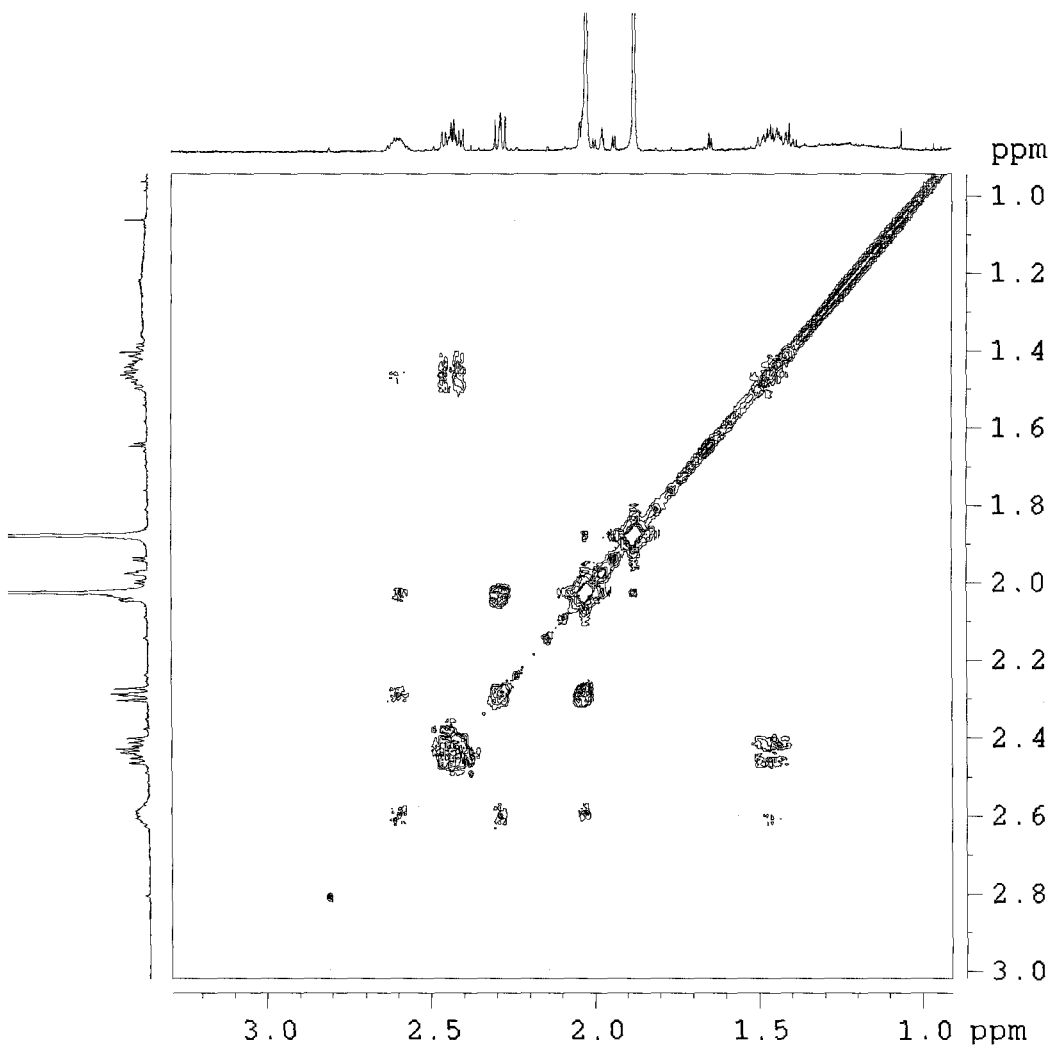


Figure 4.4 COSY spectrum of 4-19 in CD_6 .

4.6 nOe and Molecular Mechanics Study

An nOe study in conjunction with molecular mechanics modeling also helped establish that intramolecular coordination of the tethered epoxide to the rhenium center had occurred. Geometry optimization of both **4-18** and **4-19** were performed using Spartan v. 5.0¹³⁷ using the MMFF94 force field.¹³⁸ The optimized structures of **4-19** and **4-18** are shown in Figure 4.5. Calculated distances are shown as possible nOe interactions with the methyls on the ligand (the precondition for an appreciable nuclear Overhauser effect is that the distance r between two nuclei must be small i.e. ≤ 2.5 Å).¹³⁹ For **4-19** the calculated structure would predict four possible (distances are ≤ 2.5 Å) nOe interactions. Conversely, for **4-18** only two nOe interactions would be predicted. The nOe spectrum for **4-19** is shown in Figure 4.6. Irradiation of the signal at δ 1.88 ppm led to an enhancement of four different resonances as predicted from the molecular mechanics modeling. Enhancements occurred for the methyl signal (two CH₃ groups actually overlap) at δ 2.03 ppm, for the methylene group closest to the ring at δ 2.44 ppm, for the methylene group alpha to the epoxide at δ 1.45 ppm and for the CH group of the epoxide at δ 2.60 ppm. Had the epoxide been freely rotating in open space then only two nOe interactions would have been observed. This was demonstrated by an nOe study on compound **4-17**. In compound **4-17**, similar to compound **4-18**, the side-chain containing the epoxide is freely rotating in space. Irradiation of the

methyl signal at δ 1.76 ppm led to an enhancement of the two methyl signals at $\delta \sim$ 1.58 ppm and the methylene group closest to the ring at δ 2.29 ppm.

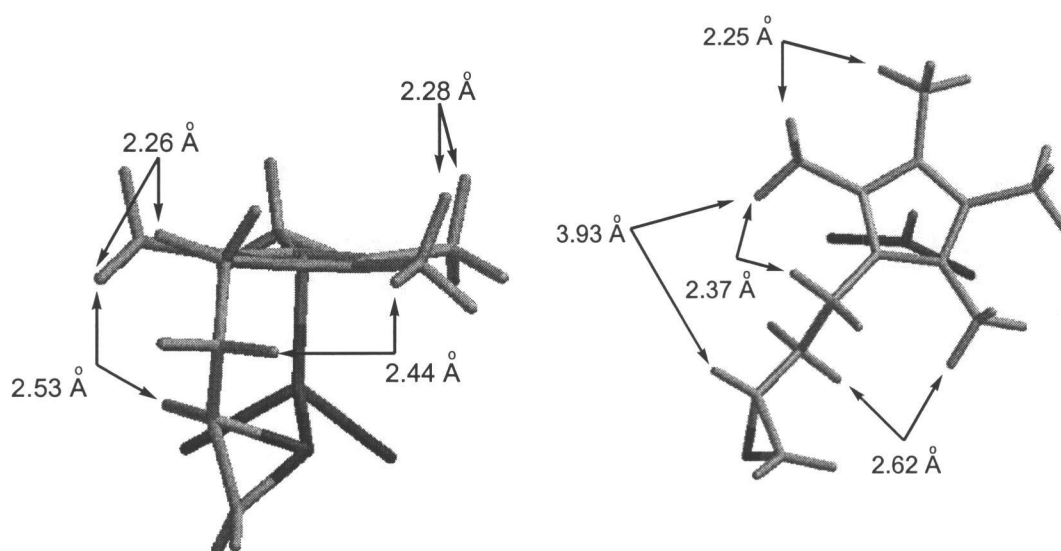


Figure 4.5 Optimized structures for **4-19** (left) and **4-18** (right) along with the distances (Å) separating the indicated nuclei.

Figure 4.6 nOe spectrum of 4-19.

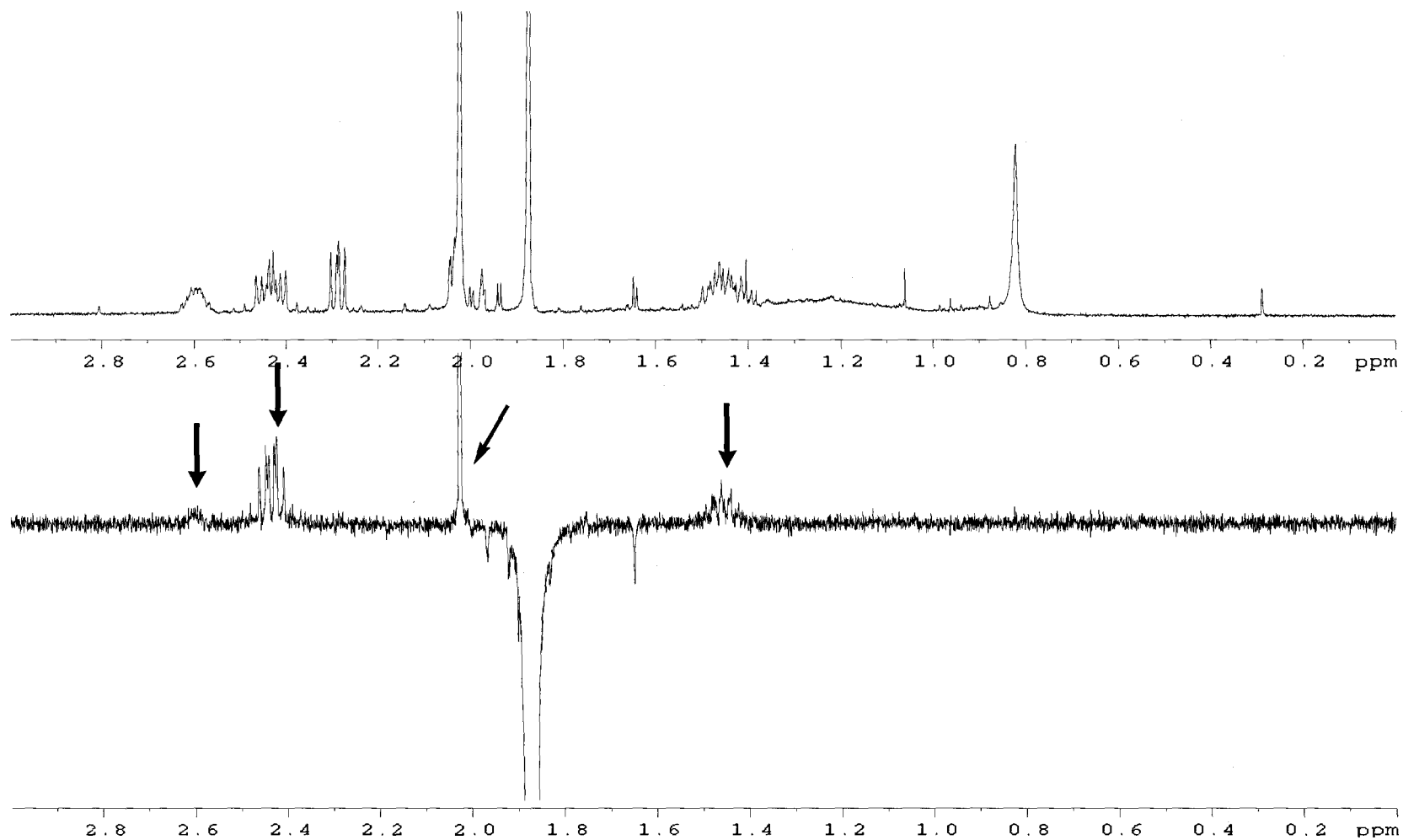
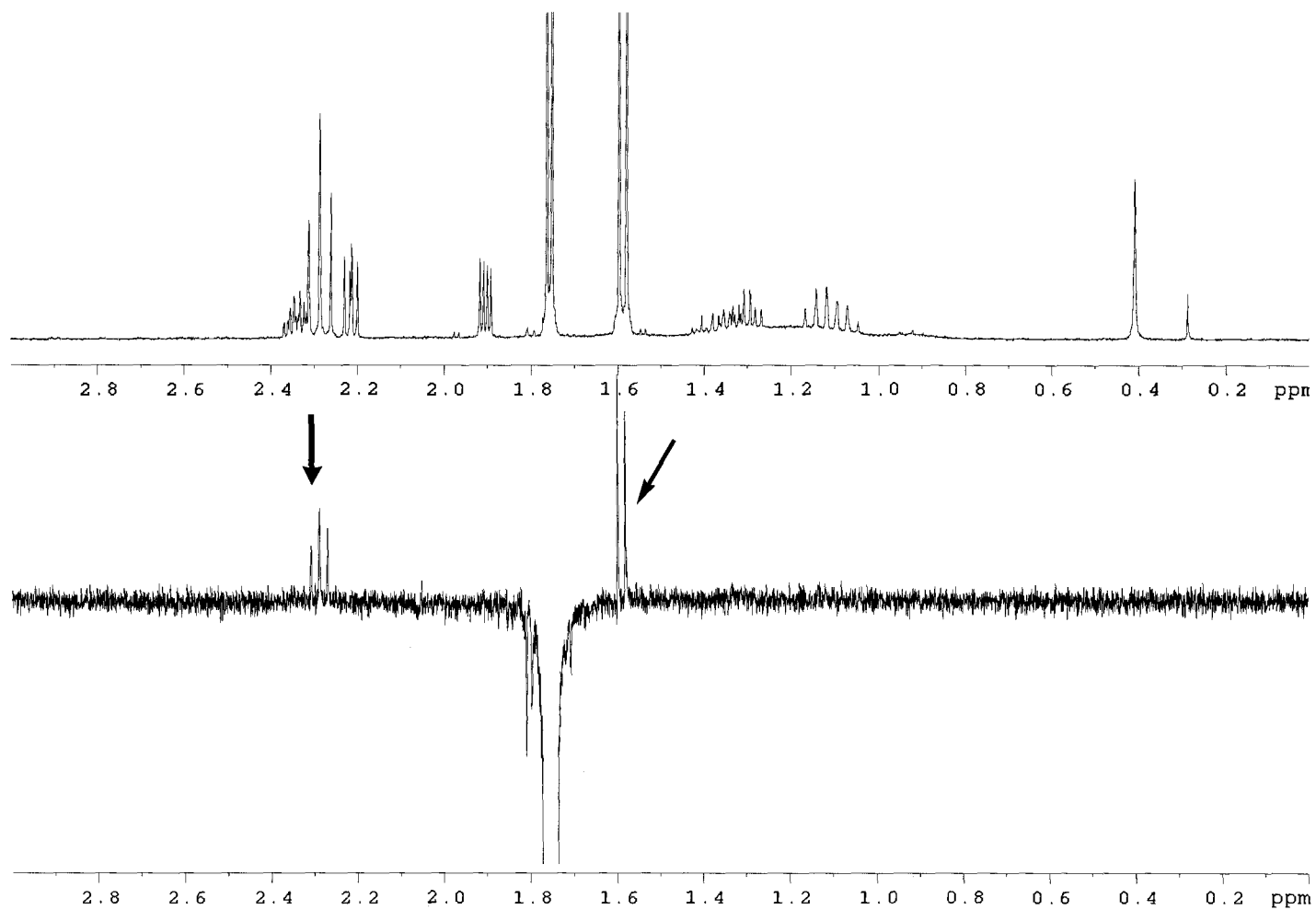


Figure 4.7 nOe spectrum of 4-17.



4.7 Conclusions

The first objective of this project was to develop a general approach to the synthesis of a epoxide-tethered Tp or Cp* complex. A rhenium(V) complex (4-17) containing a peralkylated ligand with a tethered epoxide has been successfully synthesized and characterized. Reduction of this complex with triphenylphosphine generates a reduced d^2 rhenium species that is trapped by the tethered epoxide. Preliminary experimental data and molecular mechanics modeling support intramolecular coordination of the epoxide to the rhenium center. A similar rhenium epoxide complex has been implicated in rhenium-catalyzed epoxide deoxygenations. The coordinated epoxide complex is proposed to partition between ring expansion and direct fragmentation to alkene. However, the epoxide complex was never been detected directly. This work confirms that the coordinate epoxide is a viable intermediate. However, the main goal is to study the structures, bonding, reactivity and dynamic properties of different rhenium epoxide complexes that are relevant to catalytic epoxide deoxygenations. This work has provided the initial groundwork but the more interesting chemistry lies ahead. An X-ray crystal structure of 4-19 is needed to absolutely confirm the structure proposed. In addition, rhenium epoxide complexes with longer tethers will need to be synthesized in order to observe the epoxide to diolate conversion.

Chapter 5. Conclusion

In the course of studying rhenium(V) diolate cycloreversions, $(\text{Cp}^*\text{ReO})_2(\mu\text{-O})_2$ was shown to stereospecifically abstract oxygen from epoxides.⁵⁶ The development of a process for deoxygenating epoxides using catalytic amounts of $(\text{Cp}^*\text{ReO})_2(\mu\text{-O})_2$ was developed shortly afterwards.⁵⁹ However, comproportionation of Cp^*ReO_2 and Cp^*ReO_3 produced an unreactive tetranuclear cluster that prevented catalysis. This prompted us to determine if a change in ligand could result in efficient catalysis.

The reaction of epoxide, triphenylphosphine (1:1 stoichiometry) and catalytic amounts of Tp^*ReO_3 in benzene at elevated temperatures resulted in efficient epoxide deoxygenation. The deoxygenation of *cis*- and *trans*-stilbene oxide was stereospecific, while deoxygenation of *cis*- and *trans*-butene oxide produced minor amounts of the opposite isomer. The relative reactivity of different epoxides demonstrated how the effect of electronic and steric structure affects the deoxygenation process. Terminal epoxides were deoxygenated faster than internal epoxides and *cis*-epoxides reacted faster than *trans*-epoxides. Increasing alkyl substitution resulted in a slower rate. Conversely, an increase in the rate was observed with increasing aryl substitution.

Numerous functional groups were tolerated. A total of twenty-eight different epoxides were tested as possible substrates and only three were incompatible with the catalyst. In addition, deoxygenation of 1,2-epoxydodecane

in a 94% yield was performed on a preparative scale. These two results alone demonstrate the synthetic utility of this reaction. Most reagents known to deoxygenate epoxides require multiple steps, stoichiometric conditions, harsh reaction conditions and complicated reagents. Loss of stereochemistry and incompatibility with other functional groups often occurs as well. Our system is a one-step procedure using catalytic amounts of rhenium run at relatively low temperatures (75-105°C). Furthermore, the catalyst $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ is synthesized in high yields in three simple steps and can be easily scaled up to make gram quantities of catalyst.

Ligand modification was also shown to suppress formation of the dimeric bridged oxo compound $[\text{LReO}]_2(\mu\text{-O})_2$ that resulted from reduction of LReO_3 when $\text{L} = \text{Cp}^*$, Tp and Tk . Instead, reduction of $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ with triphenylphosphine forms a monomeric rhenium(V) species with C_s symmetry. Two possible isomers were proposed but experimental evidence and computational modeling support the formation of $\text{Tp}'\text{Re}(\text{O})(\text{OH})_2$. The oxo bis-hydroxide complex is extremely reactive and is effective at stoichiometric epoxide deoxygenations. Loss of water to form $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_2$ (species responsible for deoxygenations) was shown to be a necessary preequilibrium process for epoxide deoxygenations. Loss of water is also very facile since $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}(\text{OH})(\text{OEt})$ is immediately formed upon contact with ethanol. Both the oxo bis-hydroxide and ethoxide complexes are efficient catalysts for O-atom transfer.

A kinetic study of the catalytic reaction revealed that the reaction is quite complex. The kinetic data showed an initial “burst” of alkene production followed by pseudo-zero order behavior for alkene formation later in the reaction. First-order behavior in $[\text{Re}]_{\text{T}}$, zero-order dependence in $[\text{PPh}_3]$ and saturation behavior for epoxide were observed. Saturation behavior suggests reversible formation of a catalyst-substrate intermediate whose decomposition is rate-controlling. The intermediate was proposed to be a coordinated epoxide complex, but direct observation of the complex under catalytic conditions has never occurred. Instead, the only rhenium species observed was the *syn*-Tp'Re(O)(diolate) complex, formed by ring expansion of the epoxide. *syn*-Diolate formation was determined experimentally to be kinetic in origin. However, cycloreversion of the *syn*-diolate was unable to account for the observed turnover frequency. Therefore, a second pathway was proposed to account for alkene formation. Direct fragmentation of the coordinated epoxide complex was proposed as the second alkene-forming process. The direct epoxide fragmentation process was determined to be the main source of alkene and was found to be four times faster than ring expansion. A rate law incorporating both pathways was developed and could account for the kinetic behavior. Computational modeling also supports the proposed mechanism.

An epoxide-tethered peralkylated cyclopentadiene complex has also been synthesized in an attempt to observe any possible intermediates involved in rhenium-catalyzed epoxide deoxygenations. Reduction of this complex produces a rhenium(V) species that is immediately trapped by the epoxide attached to the side-

chain. Experimental evidence and molecular mechanics modeling support intramolecular coordination of the epoxide to the rhenium center. This species is analogous to the coordinated epoxide complex proposed in our catalytic system.

The implication of all these results is that oxo metal complexes must be capable of both epoxidation and bishydroxylation processes. Take for example, the chromyl chloride epoxidation mechanism (Scheme 3.4). Three mechanisms were proposed to account for epoxide, chlorohydrin and vicinal dichloride formation: (1) Direct addition of olefins to one of the oxygen atoms in a single step, (2) [2+2] cycloaddition of olefin to the oxo group on chromium, and (3) [3+2] cycloaddition of olefin to two oxo groups on chromium. However, none of the proposals took in consideration that maybe multiple pathways might be operating simultaneously. The direct addition and [3+2] cycloaddition pathways are essentially the microscopic reverse of direct epoxide fragmentation and diolate cycloreversion. In fact, it is possible that one pathway gives predominantly epoxides, while the second pathway gives predominantly chlorohydrins and vicinal dichlorides. Numerous other examples exist where two possible pathways might be competing. However, one exciting implication of these results is that it may be possible to favor one pathway over the other by simply changing the steric or electronic nature of the ligand.

Chapter 6. Experimental

6.1 General Methods

All reactions were performed under an inert atmosphere using standard Schlenk and vacuum line techniques¹⁴⁰ and a nitrogen-filled glovebox (Vacuum-Atmospheres Co. HE 493), except when noted. All solvents were dried, degassed and distilled prior to use. Ether and THF were distilled from Na/benzophenone, hexane and benzene from K/Na alloy, acetonitrile and dichloromethane from CaH₂ and dimethyl sulfoxide and toluene from 4 Å molecular sieves. Molecular sieves (4 Å, Fisher) were activated by heating under vacuum (0.01 mbar) at 250°C overnight prior to use. Infrared spectra were run on a Nicolet Magna-IR560. UV-vis spectra were obtained on a Shimadzu UV-2101PC. Samples <5mg were weighed on a calibrated Cahn Model 29 microbalance. Starting reagents were used as purchased from Aldrich or Acros (Fisher) except when noted. All deuterated solvents were purchased from Cambridge Isotopes. Silica gel (32-63 mesh) used for flash column chromatography was purchased from Selecto, Inc.

6.2 NMR Measurements

NMR spectra were recorded on either a Brüker DP300 (operating at 300.13 MHz for proton or 75.409 MHz for carbon) or a Brüker DPX400 (operating at

400.134 MHz for proton or 100.614 MHz for carbon). ^1H chemical shifts are referenced using the residual solvent protons and are reported relative to tetramethylsilane. ^{13}C chemical shifts are reported relative to tetramethylsilane and are referenced to solvent peaks.

6.3 Measurement of Kinetics

Kinetics were followed by measuring ^1H NMR integrations; a relaxation delay of 15-30 s ($>5 T_1$) per pulse was used in collecting NMR spectra to ensure accurate integration. 1,4-di-*tert*-butylbenzene was used when necessary as an internal integration standard. All epoxide solutions were prepared by mixing epoxide, PPh_3 and 1,4-di-*tert*-butylbenzene in the appropriate solvent, then predrying the mixture over CaH_2 before adding to solid Tp^*ReO_3 .

A representative example is given for deoxygenation of *cis*-stilbene oxide. *cis*-Stilbene oxide (0.11 g, 0.56 mmol), triphenylphosphine (0.16 g, 0.61 mmol) and 1,4-di-*tert*-butylbenzene (1.61 mg, 0.0085 mmol) was dissolved in 3 mL of C_6D_6 and dried over CaH_2 . A 0.5 mL aliquot was then added to a NMR tube containing Tp^*ReO_3 (2.41 mg, 0.0045 mmol) and sealed under vacuum. The tube was then submerged and heated to $75.3 \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$ in a water/ethylene glycol bath. The sample tube was periodically removed and cooled to 25°C and the ^1H NMR spectrum was recorded. Other kinetic measurements used analogous procedures.

6.4 Synthetic Procedures

Potassium hydrido-*tris*-(3,5-dimethyl-1-pyrazolyl)borate

This was prepared according to Trofimenko.⁸⁴ A mixture of 3,5-dimethylpyrazole (11.43 g, 119.0 mmol) and potassium borohydride (1.60 g, 29.66 mmol) were placed into a 100 mL roundbottom equipped with a stirbar and thermometer sidearm. The solids were then heated to 170°C and the mixture was allowed to melt with stirring. Hydrogen begins to evolve and after 30 minutes at 170°C evolution of hydrogen ceases. The melt was then heated to 190-200°C for 2 hours, after which the melt was then cooled to about 150°C and poured into cold toluene. Precipitation of the white product resulted and the mixture was filtered. The product was then washed with toluene and hexane. Yield: 7.18 g (29.7 mmol, 72%). IR (KBr pellet): 2961, 2924, 2437(ν_{BH}), 1538, 1416, 1349, 1191, 1071, 1024, 813, 776, 761, 724, 666, 653, 640 cm^{-1} .

Hydrido-*tris*-(3,5-dimethyl-1-pyrazolyl)borato(trioxo)rhenium(VII)

This was prepared according to Mayer.⁸⁸ 0.91 mL of trifluoroacetic anhydride (6.47 mmol) was added dropwise to a solution containing Re_2O_7 (3.13 g, 6.46 mmol) in 30 mL of acetonitrile. A clear pale yellow solution resulted after stirring

for 10 minutes. Potassium hydrido-*tris*-(3,5-dimethyl-1-pyrazolyl)borate (4.35 g, 12.93 mmol) was then added and the solution was allowed to stir for 2 hours. The white solid product was then filtered and washed with hot water and then with hexane. Yield: 6.57 g (12.4 mmol, 96%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): δ 5.89 (s, 3H), 2.82 (s, 9H), 2.34 (s, 9H). ^1H NMR (C_6D_6): δ 5.36 (s, 3H), 2.96 (s, 9H), 1.93 (s, 9H). IR (KBr pellet): 2928, 2546 (ν_{BH}), 1545, 1451, 1416, 1390, 1371, 1213, 1189, 1070, 1049, 938, 907 (ν_{ReO}), 865, 814, 687, 646 cm^{-1} .

Hydrido-*tris*-(3,5-dimethyl-1-pyrazolyl)borato(ethane-1,2-diolato)(oxo)rhenium(V)

This was prepared according to Gable.⁸³ $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ (0.51 g, 0.96 mmol), triphenylphosphine (0.51 g, 1.94 mmol), *p*-toluenesulfonic acid monohydrate (2.0 mg, 0.01 mmol), ground molecular sieves (1.0 g), and ethylene glycol (0.30 g, 4.83 mmol) were stirred at room temperature for 24 hours in 50 mL THF. The blue mixture was filtered, and the volatiles removed under reduced pressure. The product was purified by chromatography on silica gel (Scientific Adsorbents Inc., 32-63). A solution of dichloromethane and 1% acetone was used to elute the blue diolate. Removal of solvent left a blue solid. Yield: 0.38 g (0.69 mmol, 71%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): δ 5.97 (s, 2H), 5.50 (s, 1H), 5.39 (m, 2H), 5.03 (m, 2H), 2.62 (s, 6H), 2.53 (s, 6H), 2.33 (s, 3H), 2.14 (s, 3H). ^{13}C NMR (CDCl_3): δ 157, 154, 147, 143, 108.0, 107.6, 86, 14.3, 14.3, 12.9, 12.7. IR (KBr): 2910, 2858, 2535 (ν_{BH}),

1545, 1452, 1419, 1383, 1203, 1071, 1015, 960 (ν_{ReO}), 907, 815, 627 cm^{-1} . MS (EI): 560.2 [M^+].

Hydrido-*tris*-(3,5-dimethyl-1-pyrazolyl)borato((*cis*-1,2-diphenyl-1,2-diolato)(oxo) rhenium(V)

This was prepared according to Gable.⁸³ Tp^*ReO_3 (0.20 g, 0.38 mmol), polymer-supported triphenylphosphine (0.31 g, 3 mmol/g resin), *p*-toluenesulfonic acid monohydrate (2.0 mg, 0.01 mmol), ground molecular sieves (1.0 g), and *meso*-hydrobenzoin (0.16 g, 7.47 mmol) were stirred at room temperature for 24 hours in 40 mL THF. The blue mixture was filtered, and the volatiles removed under reduced pressure. The product was purified by chromatography on silica gel (Scientific Adsorbents Inc., 32-63). A solution of dichloromethane and 1% of acetone was used to elute the blue diolate. Yield: 0.088 g (0.12 mmol, 33%) ^1H NMR (C_6D_6): δ 7.38 (d, J = 7.68 Hz, 4H), 7.05 (t, J = 7.41, 7.41 Hz, 4H), 6.88 (d, J = 7.41 Hz, 2H), 6.84 (s, 2H), 5.52 (s, 2H), 5.29 (s, 1H), 2.86 (s, 6H), 2.54 (s, 3H), 2.14 (s, 6H), 1.92 (s, 3H). MS (FAB): 713.2 [$\text{M}^+ + 1$].

Hydrido-*tris*-(3,5-dimethylpyrazolyl)borato(oxo)rhenium(V) dichloride

HCl (0.026 g, 0.72 mmol) was added to a solution of $\text{Tp}'\text{Re}(\text{O})(\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{O})$ (0.2 g, 0.36 mmol) in 25 mL of THF and stirred for 30 minutes. The solution was then neutralized using triethylamine, filtered and purified by flash column chromatography on silica gel (Scientific Adsorbents Inc., 32-63). Dichloromethane was used to elute the product. Yield: 0.13 g (0.23 mmol, 64%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): δ 6.14(s, 2H), 5.72 (s, 1H), 2.98 (s, 6H), 2.70 (s, 6H), 2.39 (s, 3H), 2.25 (s, 3H). ^{13}C NMR (CDCl_3): δ 157.7, 157.6, 148.1, 143.6, 109.4, 108.0, 15.5, 14.9, 12.31, 12.27. IR(KBr): 2930, 2560, 1543, 1449, 1414, 1387, 1363, 1202, 1069, 1044, 973, 863, 814, 791, 690, 644. MS(EI): 570.1 [M^+]

Hydrido-*tris*-(3,5-dimethyl-1-pyrazolyl)borato-*bis*-hydroxy(oxo)rhenium

Method A: Water (33.9 μL , 1.88 mmol) was added to a solution containing $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ (0.25 g, 0.47 mmol) and polymer-supported triphenylphosphine (0.20 g, 0.61 mmol) in THF (50 mL). The solution was then placed under reduced pressure to ensure the removal of any dissolved oxygen. The colorless solution was allowed to stir for 48 h and over time became dark blue. The solution was then filtered and concentrated under reduced pressure. Treatment of the solution with pentanes resulted in the precipitation of a light blue powder Yield: 1.38 g (2.56 mmol, 55%).

^1H NMR (C_6D_6): δ 12.97 (br s, 2H), 5.52 (s, 2H), 5.24 (s, 1H), 2.81 (s, 6H), 2.41 (s, 3H), 2.15 (s, 6H), 1.87 (s, 3H). ^1H NMR (CD_2Cl_2): δ 12.8 (br s, 2H), 6.07 (s, 2H), 5.60 (s, 1H), 2.73 (s, 6H), 2.50 (s, 6H), 2.30 (s, 3H), 2.20 (s, 3H). ^{13}C NMR (CD_2Cl_2): δ 156.1, 152.5, 148.1, 143.4, 108.1, 106.7, 14.0, 13.8, 12.6, 12.1. IR (KBr): 3335 (ν_{OH}), 2926, 2535 (ν_{BH}), 1543, 1450, 1202, 1070, 967 (ν_{ReO}), 865, 814, 786, 647 cm^{-1} . MS (FAB): $m/e = 534, 516$ ($[\text{Re}^{187}\text{-H}_2\text{O}]^+$). Exact mass 534.1561, calculated for $\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{24}\text{BN}_6^{187}\text{ReO}_3$: 534.1561.

Method B: $\text{Tp}'\text{ReOCl}_2$ (0.05 g, 0.09 mmol) was placed in a 250 mL thick walled glass bomb equipped with a magnetic stir bar. The vessel was evacuated, and 15 mL of CH_3CN was vacuum transferred into it. Under a flow of argon, NEt_3 (0.09 g, 0.86 mmol) and H_2O (0.094 g, 5.22 mmol) was added. The solution was freeze-pump-thaw degassed and heated at 80°C for 24 hrs. The reaction vessel was then opened in the glove box and its contents poured into a 25 mL round bottom attached to a fritted apparatus. The solution was filtered and concentrated under reduced pressure. Treatment of the solution with pentanes resulted in the precipitation of $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}(\text{OH})_2$. Yield: 0.0064 g (0.01mmol, 14%).

Hydrido-*tris*-(3,5-dimethyl-1-pyrazolyl)borato(chloro)(hydroxy)(oxo)rhenium

Concentrated HCl (30.0 μ L, 0.51 mmol) was added to a solution containing Tp'ReO₃ (0.13 g, 0.24 mmol) and triphenylphosphine (0.11 g, 0.42 mmol) in THF (20 mL). The solution was then placed under reduced pressure to ensure the removal of any dissolved oxygen. The suspension was allowed to stir for 48 h and over time became dark blue. The solution was evaporated to dryness to yield a blue solid. Column chromatography on silica gel (Scientific Adsorbents Inc, 32-63) with CH₂Cl₂ as eluent yielded a deep blue product. Yield: 0.093 g (0.17 mmol, 71%). ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 16.5 (bs, 1H), 6.062 (s, 1H), 6.054 (s, 1H), 5.63 (s, 1H), 2.91 (s, 3H), 2.80 (s, 3H), 2.62 (s, 3H), 2.58 (s, 3H), 2.32 (s, 3H), 2.19 (s, 3H). ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃): δ 158.1, 157.4, 153.9, 149.0, 147.0, 143.4, 109.1, 108.7, 107.9, 15.3, 15.2, 14.3, 12.81, 12.79, 12.6. IR (KBr): 3448 (ν_{OH}), 2929, 2546 (ν_{BH}), 1545, 1450, 1419, 1386, 1368, 1204, 1074, 971 (ν_{ReO}), 864, 814, 786, 690, 642, 616 cm⁻¹. MS (EI): 552.12081 [M⁺].

Hydrido-*tris*-(3,5-dimethyl-1-pyrazolyl)borato(ethoxy)(hydroxyl)(oxo)rhenium

Ethanol (5.0 mL) was added to a solution containing Tp'ReO₃ (0.15 g, 0.28 mmol) and polymer-supported triphenylphosphine (0.19 g, 0.56 mmol) in THF (35 mL). The solution was then placed under reduced pressure to ensure the removal of any

dissolved oxygen. The colorless solution was allowed to stir for 72 h and over time became blue. The solution was then filtered and the volatiles were removed in vacuo leaving a blue solid. Yield: 0.15 g (0.27 mmol, 95%). ^1H NMR (C_6D_6): δ 13.96 (br s, 1H), 5.86 (m, 1H), 5.58 (s, 1H), 5.50 (s, 1H), 5.38 (m, 1H), 5.31 (s, 1H), 2.92 (s, 3H), 2.63 (s, 3H), 2.49 (s, 3H), 2.18 (s, 3H), 2.16 (s, 3H), 1.90 (s, 3H), 1.60 (t, $J = 7.0\text{Hz}$, 3H). ^{13}C NMR (C_6D_6): δ 156.8, 155.7, 153.8, 147.0, 146.2, 142.3, 108.1, 108.0, 106.9, 77.3, 18.9, 14.3, 14.1, 14.0, 12.4, 12.3, 12.0. IR (KBr): 3335 (ν_{OH}), 2924, 2540 (ν_{BH}), 1543, 1450, 1203, 1070, 961 (ν_{ReO}), 815, 643 cm^{-1} .

Hydrido-*tris*-(3,5-dimethyl-1-pyrazolyl)borato(*syn*-phenyl-1,2-diolato)(oxo) rhenium

Into a 250 mL thick walled glass bomb equipped with a Teflon valve were placed Tp^*ReO_3 (0.03g, 0.057 mmol) and a magnetic stir bar. The vessel was evacuated, and 20 mL of dry benzene was vacuum transferred into it. The vessel was then filled with argon and under a flow of argon, 33.8 μL of triethylphosphite (0.28 mmol) and 19.3 μL of styrene oxide (0.17 mmol) was added. The solution was then freeze-pump-thaw degassed and heated at 75°C for 90 minutes. The reaction vessel was opened to the air, its contents were poured into a round-bottom flask, and the volatiles were removed on a rotary evaporator. The product was then purified by chromatography on silica gel (Scientific Adsorbents Inc, 32-63). Initial elution with 1:1 hexane/dichloromethane was used to remove olefin and unreacted

epoxide. Straight dichloromethane was used to elute the blue diolate. The dichloromethane solution was then dried with MgSO_4 , filtered and the volatiles removed to give a blue powder. Yield: 0.014 g (0.02 mmol, 38%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): δ 7.71(d, J = 7.50 Hz, 2H), 7.43 (t, J = 7.50 Hz, 2H), 7.30 (t, J = 7.50 Hz, 2H), 6.01 (s, 1H), 5.98 (s, 1H), 5.89 (dd, J = 7.68, 9.70 Hz, 1H), 5.82 (dd, J = 7.68, 9.70 Hz, 1H), 5.49 (s, 1H), 5.40 (t, J = 9.70 Hz, 1H), 2.66 (s, 3H), 2.64 (s, 3H), 2.56 (s, 3H), 2.54 (s, 3H), 2.20 (s, 3H), 2.16 (s, 3H). ^1H NMR (C_6D_6): δ 7.83 (d, J = 7.68 Hz, 2H), 7.34 (t, J = 7.68 Hz, 2H), 7.19 (t, 1H), 6.13 (dd, J = 7.68, 9.61 Hz, 1H), 6.00 (dd, J = 7.68, 9.88 Hz, 1H), 5.59 (m, 3H), 5.10 (s, 1H), 2.83 (s, 3H), 2.81 (s, 3H), 2.27 (s, 3H), 2.17 (s, 6H), 1.86 (s, 3H). ^{13}C NMR (CDCl_3): δ 157.7, 157.2, 154.2, 147.9, 147.3, 143.4, 143.1, 128.7, 127.1, 126.4, 108.1, 108.08, 107.5, 98.4, 89.4, 15.7, 14.5, 14.0, 12.93, 12.85, 12.8. IR (KBr): 2925, 2536 (ν_{BH}), 1545, 1451, 1420, 1384, 1204, 1071, 957 (ν_{ReO}), 814, 697, 646 cm^{-1} . MS (FAB): 637.2 [$\text{M}^+ + 1$].

Hydrido-*tris*-(3,5-dimethyl-1-pyrazolyl)borato(*syn,cis*-1,2-diphenyl-1,2-diolato) (oxo) rhenium

Into a 250 mL thick walled glass bomb equipped with a Teflon valve were placed $\text{Tp}'\text{ReO}_3$ (0.03 g, 0.057 mmol), *cis*-stilbene oxide (0.03 g, 0.15 mmol) and a magnetic stir bar. The vessel was evacuated, and 20 mL of dry THF was vacuum transferred into it. The vessel was then filled with argon and under a flow of argon, 67.7 μL of triethylphosphite (0.57 mmol) was added. The solution was then freeze-

pump-thaw degassed and heated at 75°C for 30 minutes. The reaction vessel was opened to the air, its contents were poured into a round-bottom flask, and the volatiles were removed on a rotary evaporator. The product was then purified by chromatography on silica gel (Scientific Adsorbents Inc, 63-200). Initial elution with 2:1 hexane/dichloromethane was used to remove olefin and unreacted epoxide. Straight dichloromethane was used to elute the blue diolate. The dichloromethane solution was then dried with MgSO₄, filtered and the volatiles removed to give a blue powder. Yield: 0.0157 g (0.02 mmol, 51%) ¹H NMR (C₆D₆): δ 7.56(d, 4H), 7.10 (m, 6H), 6.93 (s, 2H), 5.58 (s, 2H), 5.21 (s, 1H), 2.76 (s, 6H), 2.31 (s, 3H), 2.18 (s, 6H), 1.92 (s, 3H). ¹H NMR (300MHz,CDCl₃): δ 7.32 (dd, 4H), 7.18 (m, 6H), 6.70 (s, 2H), 6.00 (s, 2H), 5.52 (s, 1H), 2.58 (s, 6H), 2.57 (s, 6H), 2.21 (s, 3H), 2.17 (s, 3H). ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃): δ 158.0, 155.5, 147.6, 144.3, 142.8, 128.7, 127.7, 126.9, 108.1, 107.2, 99.8, 16.7, 14.2, 13.0, 12.9. IR (KBr): 2926, 2542 (ν_{BH}), 1544, 1451, 1383, 1204, 1073, 958(ν_{ReO}), 943, 723, 698, 669 cm⁻¹. MS (FAB): 711.2 [M⁺-1].

Preparative Scale: Deoxygenation of 1,2-epoxydodecane

Chromatography Variant: Into a 250 mL thick walled glass bomb equipped with a Teflon plug were placed Tp'ReO₃ (0.08 g, 0.15 mmol), PPh₃ (0.88 g, 3.36 mmol) and a magnetic stir bar. The vessel was evacuated, and 30 mL of dry benzene was

vacuum transferred into it. The vessel was then filled with argon and under a flow of argon, 0.62 mL of 1,2-epoxydodecene (2.82 mmol) was added. The solution was then freeze-pump-thaw degassed and heated to 85°C for 86h. The reaction vessel was opened to the air and an aliquot analyzed by NMR showed no remaining epoxide. The contents were then poured into a round-bottom flask and the volatiles were removed on a rotary evaporator. The alkene was then purified by column chromatography on silica gel (Scientific Absorbents Inc., 32-63). Elution with straight hexane, followed by removal of the volatiles gave 1-dodecene. Yield: 447.0 mg (2.70 mmol, 94%).

Distillation Variant: 1,2-epoxydodecane (0.75 g, 4.1 mmol) was dissolved in 60 mL of toluene and dried over CaH_2 . Tp^*ReO_3 (110 mg, 0.2 mmol, 0.05 equiv) and PPh_3 (1.18 g, 4.5 mmol) were added. The mixture was stirred in a Carius tube under vacuum and heated to 105°C for 72 h. An aliquot analyzed by NMR showed no remaining epoxide; distillation gave 1-dodecene. Yield: 440 mg (2.6 mmol, 64%).

Burst Experiment with $\text{Tp}^*\text{ReO}(\text{OH})(\text{OEt})$:

cis-Stilbene oxide (0.11 g, 0.56 mmol), triphenylphosphine (0.16 g, 0.61 mmol) and 1,4-di-*tert*-butylbenzene (1.29 mg, 0.0068 mmol) was dissolved in 3 mL of

C_6D_6 and dried over CaH_2 . A 0.5 mL aliquot was then added to a NMR tube containing $\text{Tp}^*\text{ReO}(\text{OH})(\text{OEt})$ (2.14 mg, 0.0038 mmol) and sealed under vacuum. The tube was then heated to 75°C in a water / ethylene glycol bath. The sample tube was periodically removed and cooled to 25°C and the NMR spectrum was recorded.

General Procedure for Para-Substituted Styrene Oxide Synthesis:

30 mL of dry methylene chloride was vacuum transferred into a round-bottom flask containing trimethylsulfonium iodide (4.51 g, 22.0 mmol) and NaH (0.52 g, 22 mmol) prewashed with 15 mL of hexane to remove the oil). To the resulting solution was added 1 mL of freshly distilled DMSO and 7.4mmol of the aldehyde. The solution was then cooled in a salt-ice bath and stirred overnight. After the addition of 50 mL of water, the product was extracted with methylene chloride, dried over MgSO_4 and the volatiles evaporated. Certain epoxides required additional purification by evaporative distillation.

p-Methoxystyrene Oxide: Yield: 0.90 g (6.0 mmol, 82%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): δ 7.25-6.85 (m, 4H), 3.81 (dd, $J = 2.6, 4.0\text{Hz}$, 1H), 3.81 (s, 3H), 3.13 (dd, $J = 4.0, 5.4\text{ Hz}$, 1H), 2.81 (dd, $J = 2.6, 5.4\text{ Hz}$, 1H).

p-Fluorostyrene Oxide: Yield: 0.43 g (3.1 mmol, 39%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): δ 7.27-6.99 (m, 4H), 3.84 (dd, $J = 2.5, 4.0$ Hz, 1H), 3.13 (dd, $J = 4.0, 5.4$ Hz, 1H), 2.76 (dd, $J = 2.5, 5.4$ Hz).

p-Methylstyrene Oxide: Yield = 0.30 g (2.2 mmol, 35%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): δ 7.26 – 7.17 (m, 4H), 3.85 (dd, $J = 2.6, 4.0$ Hz, 1H), 3.14 (dd, $J = 4.0, 5.5$ Hz, 1H), 2.81 (dd, $J = 2.6, 5.5$ Hz, 1H).

p-Bromostyrene Oxide: Yield = 0.82 g (4.1 mmol, 76%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): δ 7.53 – 7.10 (m, 4H), 3.83 (dd, $J = 2.5, 4.0$ Hz, 1H), 3.15 (dd, $J = 4.1, 5.5$ Hz, 1H), 2.75 (dd, $J = 2.5, 5.5$ Hz, 1H).

p-Trifluoromethylstyrene Oxide: Yield: 0.72 g (3.8 mmol, 71%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): δ 7.64-7.36 (m, 4H), 3.92 (dd, $J = 2.5, 4.0$ Hz, 1H), 3.19 (dd, $J = 4.1, 5.5$ Hz, 1H), 2.77 (dd, $J = 2.5, 5.5$ Hz, 1H).

Oct-7-ene-2,4-dione

Sodium amide (16.36 g, 419.5 mmol) was added to a 1L three-necked flask containing 450 mL of liquid ammonia cooled to -78°C in a dry ice-acetone bath while argon was passed through the reaction mixture. 20 mL of acetylacetone (200

mmol) in 80 mL of dry ether was slowly syringed into the reaction vessel. The cooling bath was removed and the solution was stirred for 45 min. 17.4 mL of allylbromide (200 mmol) in 80 mL of ether was then added drop wise over 30 min. The reaction mixture was stirred for 1 hour. 250 mL of ether was added and the ammonia was allowed to evaporate over a 3 hour period. The solution was filtered and the ethereal solution was poured onto ice, followed by 70 mL of cold concentrated hydrochloric acid. The ethereal layer was separated and aqueous layer was extracted three times with ether. The combined ethereal layers was dried with magnesium sulfate and filtered. Removal of the volatiles left a yellow product. Yield: 27.1 g (193.3 mmol, 97%) ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): Mixture of keto/enol forms (1:5); enol: δ 5.78 (m, 1H), 5.48 (s, 1H), 5.0 (m, 2H), 2.34 (m, 4H), 2.02 (s, 3H). IR (KBr): 3081, 2924, 1707, 1618, 1420, 1363, 996, 916, 785 cm^{-1} . MS(CI): 140.08 [M^+].

3-(1-Butene)-5-methylpyrazole

To a solution of 1-octene-5,7-dione (19.2 g, 140 mmol) in 200 mL of ethanol, hydrazine monohydrochloride (9.57 g, 140 mmol) and 30 mL of water was added. After stirring overnight, an aqueous solution containing potassium bicarbonate was added until a neutral pH was obtained. The product was extracted with dichloromethane and dried with magnesium sulfate. Filtration and removal of the

volatiles left the product. Yield: 9.8 g (72.0 mmol, 53%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): δ 11.82 (s, 1H), 5.87 (s, 1H), 5.86 (m, 1H), 5.06 (ddd, $J = 1.65, 3.43, 17.15$ Hz, 1H), 5.00 (ddd, $J = 1.37, 3.16, 10.3$ Hz, 1H), 2.74 (dd, $J = 7.3, 9.2$ Hz, 2H), 2.40 (m, 2H), 2.29 (s, 3H). ^{13}C NMR (75MHz, CDCl_3): δ 149.0, 144.4, 138.0, 115.7, 103.6, 33.8, 26.8, 12.5. IR (KBr): 3196, 3135, 3104, 3034, 2979, 2928, 1641, 1582, 1475, 1437, 1029, 1006, 913, 794 cm^{-1} . MS (FAB): 137.1 [$\text{M}^+ + 1$].

1-(3-Butenyl)-2,3,4,5-tetramethyl-cyclopentadiene

This was prepared according to Okuda.¹²³ 4-Bromo-1-butene (9.7 g, 71.9 mmol) in 30 mL of diethyl ether was added dropwise over 1.5h to a 40 mL diethyl ether solution containing 1.91g (78.7 mmol) of magnesium turnings. The solution was then heated to reflux for 1 h. 2,3,4,5-tetramethylcyclopent-2-enone (9.01 g, 65.2 mmol) was added dropwise. The solution was then refluxed again for 2h, after which 20 mL H_2O and 10g of ice were slowly added. Acidic ion-exchange resin (Amberlite IR-120®) was added with 20 mL of H_2O . The mixture was stirred overnight. The solution was filtered and the organic layer was separated from the aqueous layer. The organic layer was then dried with magnesium sulfate and filtered. A yellow oil results after removal of the solvent. Yield: 7.60 g (43.1 mmol, 66%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): Mixture of three isomers; 5.81 (m), 4.92 (m),

2.39-2.52 (m), 2.29 (m), 2.11 (m), 1.83, 1.81, 1.79, 1.78, 1.03(s), 1.00(s).

MS(FAB): 175.15 [$M^+ - 1$].

[1-(3-Butenyl)-2,3,4,5-tetramethylcyclopentadienyl]rhenium tricarbonyl

A three-necked, 250 mL flask is fitted with a magnetic stirring bar and a Dean-Stark condenser. The flask is filled with argon before dry deoxygenated benzene (100 mL) is added. 340 μ L of thallium(I) ethoxide (4.8 mmol) is syringed into the solution, followed by the syringe addition of 1-(3-butenyl)-2,3,4,5-tetramethylcyclopentadiene (0.97 g, 5.5 mmol). The solution was heated to reflux for 1 hour and 30 mL of benzene was distilled and removed. $\text{Re}(\text{CO})_5\text{Br}$ (2.0 g, 4.92 mmol) was then added, during which time the solution was heated to reflux under argon for 25 hours. Filtration and removal of solvent left a dark orange oil. Purification on a silica column (Scientific Adsorbents Inc, 32-63) eluting with methylene chloride yielded analytically pure product. Yield: 0.37 g (0.84 mmol, 18%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): δ 5.83 (m, 1H), 5.04 (m, 2H), 2.54 (m, 2H), 2.18 (s, 12H), 2.18(m, 2H). ^1H NMR (C_6D_6): δ 5.57 (m, 1H), 4.90 (m, 2H), 2.24 (dd, 2.24), 1.86 (m, 2H), 1.75 (s, 6H), 1.70 (s, 6H). ^{13}C NMR (CDCl_3): δ 198.3, 137.6, 116.0, 101.7, 99.3, 98.9, 36.5, 25.8, 11.14, 11.12. IR (KBr): 2925, 2855, 2010 (ν_{CO}), 1918 (ν_{CO}), 1639, 1452, 1377, 909. MS(FAB): 444.09 [$M^+ - 2$].

[1-(3-Butenyl)-2,3,4,5-tetramethylcyclopentadienyl]rhenium trioxide

To a solution containing [1-(3-butenyl)-2,3,4,5-tetramethylcyclopentadienyl]rhenium tricarbonyl (0.058 g, 0.13 mmol) in 10 mL of C₆H₆, 156 μ L of 5.0 *M tert*-butyl hydroperoxide was added dropwise. The solution was stirred at room temperature for 90 minutes, whereupon the solution was heated to reflux for 20 minutes. The color of the solution turned to a bright yellow, with a small amount of a brown precipitate. After filtration, volatiles were removed under reduced pressure. The product was then purified by chromatography on silica gel (Scientific Adsorbents Inc, 32-63). CH₂Cl₂ with a trace of acetone was used to elute the product. Yield: 0.031 g (0.08 mmol, 58%). ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 5.82 (m, 1H), 5.08 (m, 2H), 2.61 (q, 2H), 2.28 (m, 2H), 2.24 (s, 6H), 2.17 (s, 6H). ¹H NMR (C₆D₆): 5.52 (m, 1H), 4.90 (m, 1H), 4.85 (m, 1H), 2.32 (dd, 2H), 1.89 (m, 2H) 1.76 (s, 6H), 1.61 (s, 6H). ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃): δ 136.7, 121.59, 121.58, 121.2, 116.8, 33.3, 25.4, 10.86, 10.84. IR (KBr): 2927, 2027, 1919, 1637, 1458, 1381, 1364, 909 ($\nu_{\text{Re=O}}$), 879 ($\nu_{\text{Re=O}}$), cm⁻¹. MS (EI): 410.1 [M⁺].

[1-(3',4'-Epoxy)-2,3,4,5-tetramethylcyclopentadienyl]rhenium trioxide

To a solution containing [1-(3-butenyl)-2,3,4,5-tetramethylcyclopentadienyl]rhenium trioxide (0.018 g, 0.044mmol) in 15 mL of C₆H₆ was added 0.02 g of

MCPBA (0.1 mmol). After stirring overnight at room temperature, the organic layer was then washed successively with potassium hydroxide and water. The product was then purified by chromatography on silica gel (Scientific Adsorbents Inc, 32-63). 1% acetone in methylene chloride solution was used to elute the product. Yield: 0.009 g (0.02 mmol, 46%). ^1H NMR (C_6D_6): δ 2.35 (m, 1H), 2.29 (t, J = 7.82, 7.82 Hz, 2H), 2.22 (dd, J = 3.84, 4.94 Hz, 1H), 1.97 (dd, J = 2.47, 4.94 Hz, 1H), 1.77 (s, 3H), 1.76 (s, 3H), 1.61 (s, 3H), 1.59 (s, 3H), 1.31 (m, 1H), 1.14 (m, 1H). ^{13}C NMR (CDCl_3): δ 121.6, 121.59, 121.3, 121.2, 121.1, 51.8, 47.3, 32.1, 22.5, 10.9, 10.9, 10.74, 10.76. IR (KBr): 2924, 1459, 1364, 908 ($\nu_{\text{Re=O}}$), 877 ($\nu_{\text{Re=O}}$), cm^{-1} . MS (EI): 426.1 [M^+].

[1-(3',4'-Epoxy)-2,3,4,5-tetramethylcyclopentadienyl]rhenium dioxide

Polymer-supported triphenylphosphine (0.53 g, 0.16 mmol) was added to a 20 mL round bottom containing [1-(3',4'-epoxy)-2,3,4,5-tetramethylcyclopentadienyl]rhenium trioxide (0.034 g, 0.8 mmol) in 10 mL of benzene at room temperature. The reaction was stirred overnight under a blanket of argon. The solution was filtered and the solvent was removed under reduced pressure to leave a brown solid. ^1H NMR (C_6D_6): δ 2.60 (m, 1H), 2.44 (m, 2H), 2.29 (dd, J = 3.84, 5.21 Hz, 1H), 2.04 (m, 1H), 2.03 (s, 6H), 1.88 (s, 6H), 1.46 (m, 2H). IR (KBr): 2932, 2854, 1459, 932, 643, 538, 419. MS(EI): 408.1 [$\text{M}^+ - 2$].

2,3-Dimethyl-2,3-epoxybutane

3-Chloroperoxybenzoic acid (15.63 g, 60.0 mmol) was added in portions to a magnetically stirred two-phase solution of 2,3-dimethyl-2-butene (5.0 g, 59.4 mmol) in CH_2Cl_2 (200 mL) and 0.5 *M* aqueous sodium bicarbonate (100 mL). After stirring for 16 hours, the two layers were separated and the organic layer was washed successively with 1N sodium hydroxide and water. Removal of the volatiles under reduced pressure and distillation afforded the product. Yield: 3.4 g (33.9 mmol, 57%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): δ 1.28 (s, 12H). ^1H NMR (C_6D_6): δ 1.13 (s, 12H). IR (KBr): 2996, 2928, 1716(C=O), 1411, 1368, 1257, 1169, 912, 836 cm^{-1} .

5,6-Epoxy-2-hexanone

This was prepared according to Curci.¹⁴¹ An aqueous solution of potassium peroxomonosulfate (23.5 g, 38.2 mmol) is added dropwise to a mixture of 5-hexen-2-one (1.5 g, 15.3 mmol) and acetone (0.15g, 2.5 mmol) in water at 0°C. 198.9 mmol of acetone should have been used and may be responsible for the low yield. The pH is adjusted to 7.5 and maintained at this value during the reaction by addition of aqueous KOH. The mixture is then acidified to pH 3 using conc. HCl and extracted with CH_2Cl_2 . The organic layer was then dried (MgSO_4) and the

solvent removed in vacuo, affording analytically pure product. Yield: 0.26 g (2.3 mmol, 15%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): δ 2.78 (m, 1H), 2.57 (t, 1H), 2.43 (t, 1H), 2.31 (m, 1H), 2.00 (s, 3H), 1.77 (m, 1H), 1.50 (m, 1H). ^{13}C NMR (300MHz): δ 207.8, 51.5, 47.3, 39.6, 30.1, 26.5. IR (KBr): 2996, 2928, 1716($\text{C}=\text{O}$), 1411, 1368, 1257, 1169, 912, 836 cm^{-1} . MS (EI): 115.1 [$\text{M}^+ + 1$].

5,6-Epoxyhexanenitrile

This was prepared according to Griengl.¹⁴² To a mixture of hex-5-enenitrile (0.65g, 6.83mmol) and disodium hydrogen phosphate (1.45 g, 10.24 mmol) in CH_2Cl_2 (20 mL), *m*-chloroperbenzoic acid (1.37 g, 6.83 mmol) was added portionwise. The mixture was stirred for 65 h after which the solids were filtered and washed with CH_2Cl_2 . The supernatants were then washed with an aqueous sodium bicarbonate solution three times and dried (MgSO_4). Evaporation and distillation afforded the product. Yield: 0.27 g (2.5 mmol, 36%). ^1H NMR (CDCl_3): δ 1.55 (m, 1H), 1.86 (m, 3H), 2.43 (m, 2H), 2.50 (q, 1H), 2.78 (q, 1H), 2.93 (m, 1H). ^{13}C NMR (CDCl_3): δ 119.8, 51.6, 47.0, 31.5, 22.6, 17.3. IR (KBr): 3056, 2994, 2942, 2874, 2246, 1596, 1560, 1438, 1458, 1429, 1389, 1262, 928, 910, 853, 828, 760, 739 cm^{-1} . MS (EI): 112.1 [$\text{M}^+ + 1$].

Glycidyl *tert*-butyldimethylsilyl ether

Glycidol (0.5 g, 6.75 mL) was added to a mixture of imidazole (0.46 g, 6.75 mmol) in 10 mL of CH₂Cl₂. The mixture was stirred for 5 min. after which 1.02 g of *tert*-butyldimethylsilyl chloride (6.75 mmol) was added portionwise. The mixture was then stirred for 1 hour followed by concentration of the mixture. The addition of 30 mL ether resulted in the precipitation of the imidazolium salt. The salt was then filtered and washed with ether. The ether solution was then washed three times with water and dried (MgSO₄). Filtration followed by evaporation afforded the product that was further purified by column chromatography on basic alumina. Yield: 0.46 g (2.4 mmol, 36%). ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 3.85 (dd, *J*=3.29, 11.94, 1H), 3.65 (dd, *J*= 4.8, 11.94, 1H), 3.08 (m, 1H), 2.76 (dd, *J*=3.98, 5.21, 1H), 2.63 (dd, *J*=2.74, 5.21, 1H), 0.90 (s, 9H), 0.07 (d, 6H). IR (KBr): 2957, 2930, 2896, 2859, 1473, 1256, 1162, 1138, 1099, 918, 838, 779, 669 cm⁻¹.

6.5 Computations

Computational modeling was performed using the commercially available Jaguar package.¹⁴³ The LACVP basis set, incorporating Hay-Wadt effective core

potential¹⁴⁴ for rhenium and the 6-31G basis set for all other atoms, was used throughout. All geometry optimizations of the ground state structures and location of transition states were first optimized without polarization or diffuse functions, but were then reoptimized with the added functions (LACVP*+). This encompasses the use of d-type polarization functions and diffuse functions for all heavy atoms. Diffuse functions were included since bonding in the transition state involves elongated bonds. A Pulay 6-31G* scaled¹⁴⁵ vibrational analysis was used to show that calculated ground state structures (no imaginary frequencies) were true minima and that transition state structures (one imaginary frequency) were saddle points. Vibrational analysis utilized the final Hessian; frequencies were scaled by a factor of 0.9614¹⁴⁶, and zero point energies were calculated for all compounds. Transition states were generally located by QST methods, using reactant and product structures as boundaries for defining the initial transition state structure guess.

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Appendix

Appendix I. Kinetic Data

Table A1.1 Dependence of reaction rate on initial rhenium concentration (plotted in Figure 3.2).

Mol %	Rhenium Conc. (M)	k_{obs} (M/s)
2.5	4.52E-03	5.52E-07
5.0	9.03E-03	1.38E-06
7.5	1.35E-02	2.71E-06
10.0	1.81E-02	2.83E-06
12.5	2.26E-02	4.07E-06

Table A1.2 Dependence of reaction rate on initial phosphine concentration (plotted in Figure 3.3).

Equiv.	Phosphine Conc. (M)	k_{obs} (M/s)
1	1.99E-01	1.33E-06
2	3.61E-01	1.53E-06
3	5.42E-01	1.39E-06
4	7.23E-01	1.41E-06
5	9.03E-01	1.16E-06

Table A1.3 Dependence of reaction rate on initial epoxide concentration (plotted in Figure 3.4).

Equiv.	Epoxide Conc. (M)	k_{obs} (M/s)
0.25	4.38E-02	9.43E-07
0.5	8.80E-02	1.22E-06
1.0	3.51E-01	1.41E-06
2.0	5.26E-01	1.66E-06
3.0	7.01E-01	1.85E-06
5.0	8.76E-01	2.00E-06

Table A1.4 Hammett kinetic data (plotted in Figure 3.5).

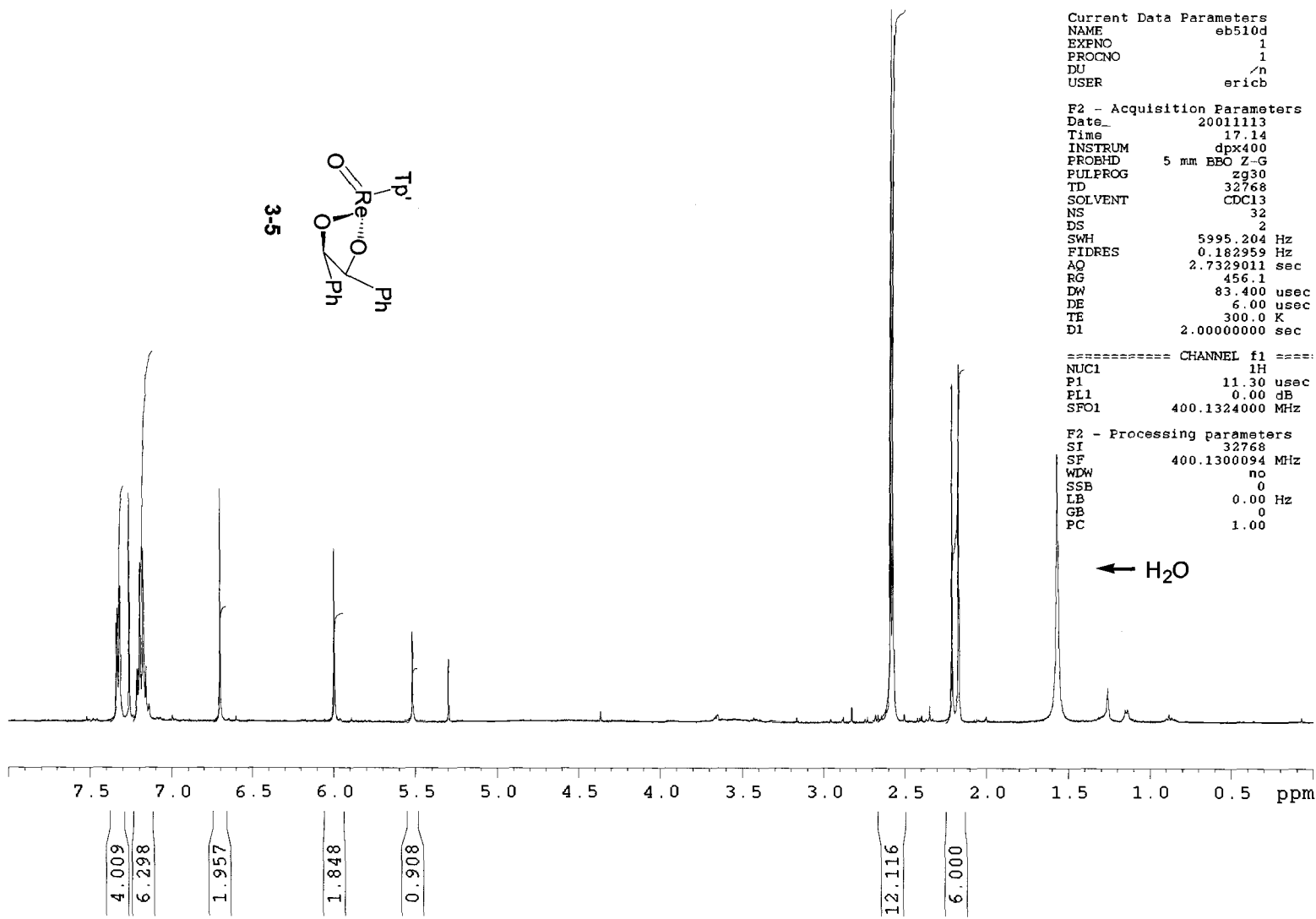
Styrene Oxide	σ_p	k_{obs} (M/s)	$\log(k_i/k_h)$
<i>p</i> - OMe	-0.27	8.66e-8	0.346
<i>p</i> - Me	-0.17	6.32e-8	0.209652
<i>p</i> - H	0.0	3.90e-8	0
<i>p</i> - F	0.06	4.24e-8	0.036301
<i>p</i> - Br	0.23	5.11e-8	0.117356
<i>p</i> - CF ₃	0.54	7.50e-8	0.283997

Table A1.5 Dependence of reaction rate on temperature for *cis*-stilbene oxide deoxygenations under catalytic conditions (data used in Figure 3.13).

Temp (K)	k _{obs} (M/s)
338.15	4.63E-07
348.45	1.43E-06
358.55	4.81E-06
363.05	8.09E-06
367.95	1.45E-05

Table A1.6 Dependence of reaction rate on temperature for cycloreversion of *syn*-monophenyldiolate **3-3** (data used in Figure 3.14).

Temp(K)	k _{obs} (M/s)
348	6.51E-07
358	2.71E-06
368	7.88E-06
378	2.39E-05



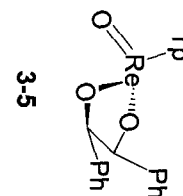
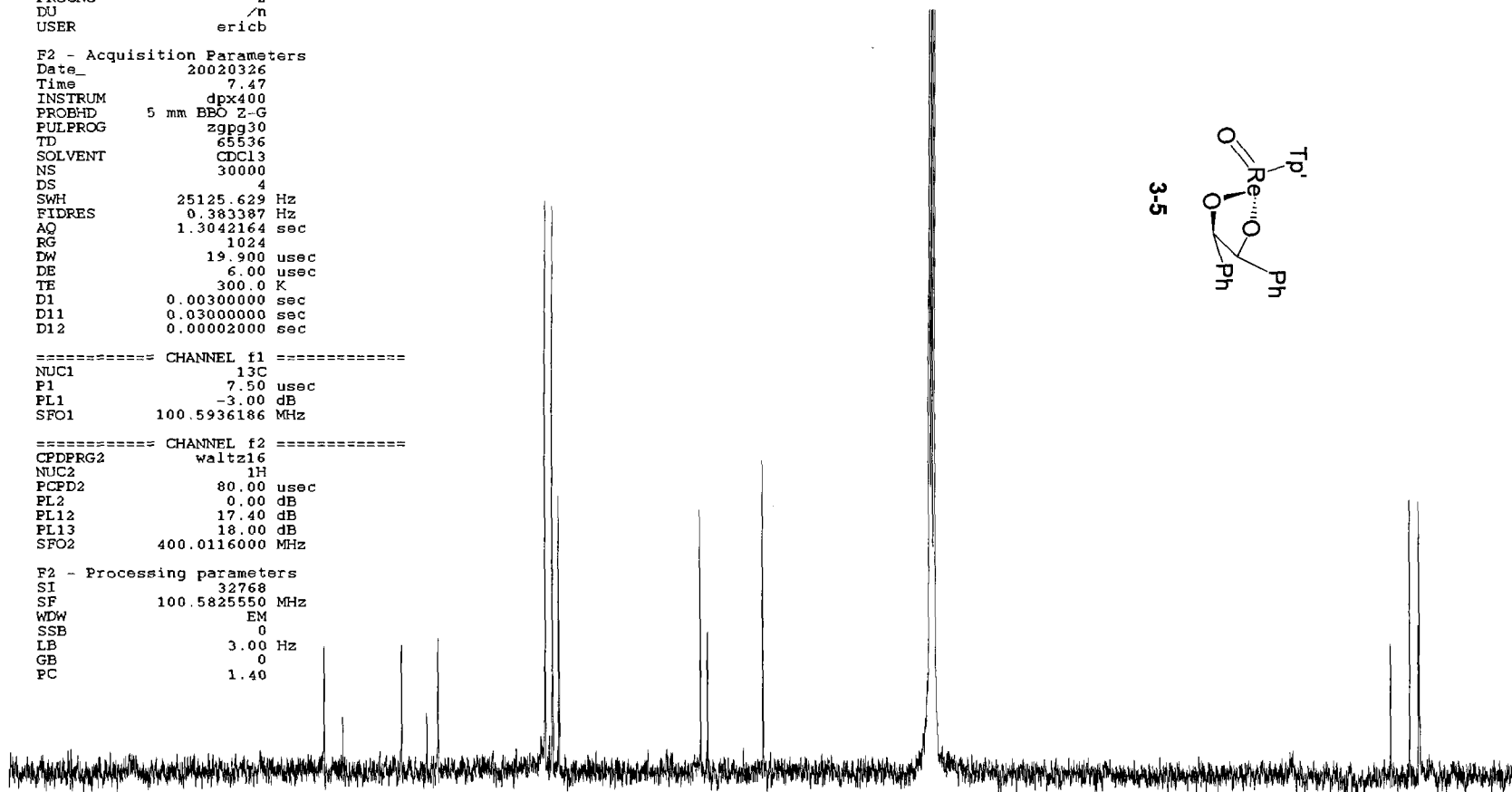
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 PULPROG zgpg30
 TD 65536
 SOLVENT CDCl3
 NS 30000
 DS 4
 SWH 25125.629 Hz
 FIDRES 0.383387 Hz
 AQ 1.3042164 sec
 RG 1024
 DW 19.900 usec
 DE 6.00 usec
 TE 300.0 K
 D1 0.00300000 sec
 D11 0.03000000 sec
 D12 0.00002000 sec

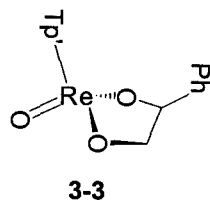
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 NUC2 1H
 PCPD2 80.00 usec
 PL2 0.00 dB
 PL12 17.40 dB
 PL13 18.00 dB
 SFO2 400.0116000 MHz

F2 - Processing parameters
 SI 32768
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 WDW EM
 SSB 0
 LB 3.00 Hz
 GB 0
 PC 1.40



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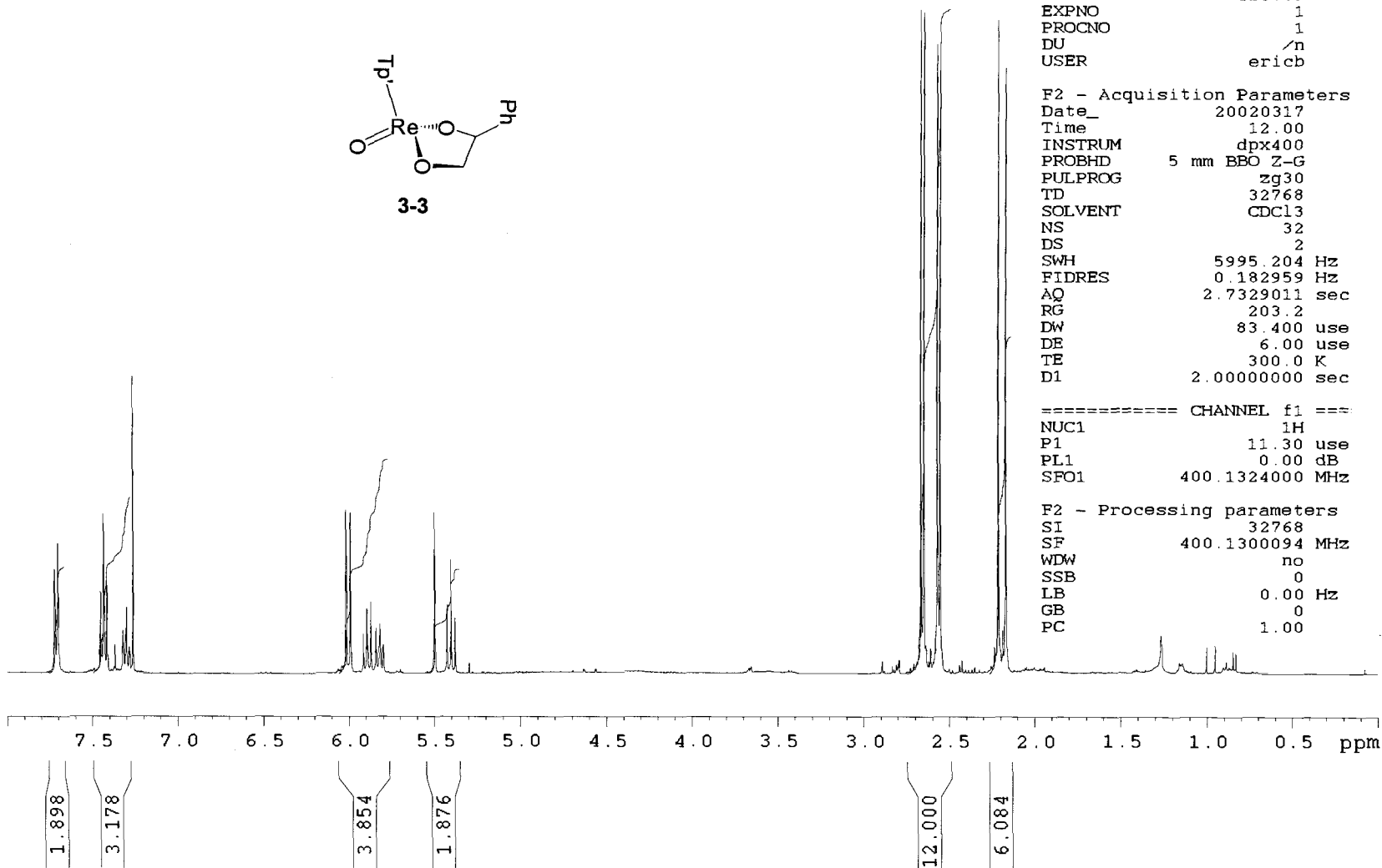


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 PULPROG zg30
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 NS 32
 DS 2
 SWH 5995.204 Hz
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 AQ 2.7329011 sec
 RG 203.2
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 TE 300.0 K
 D1 2.00000000 sec

===== CHANNEL f1 ===
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 SFO1 400.1324000 MHz

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Current Data Parameters
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 PROCNO 1
 DU 2
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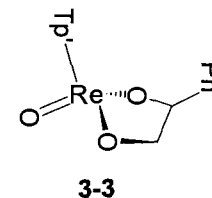
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 DE 6.00 usec
 TE 300.0 K
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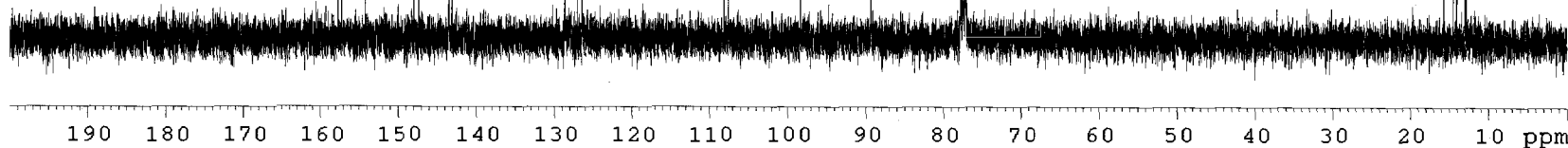
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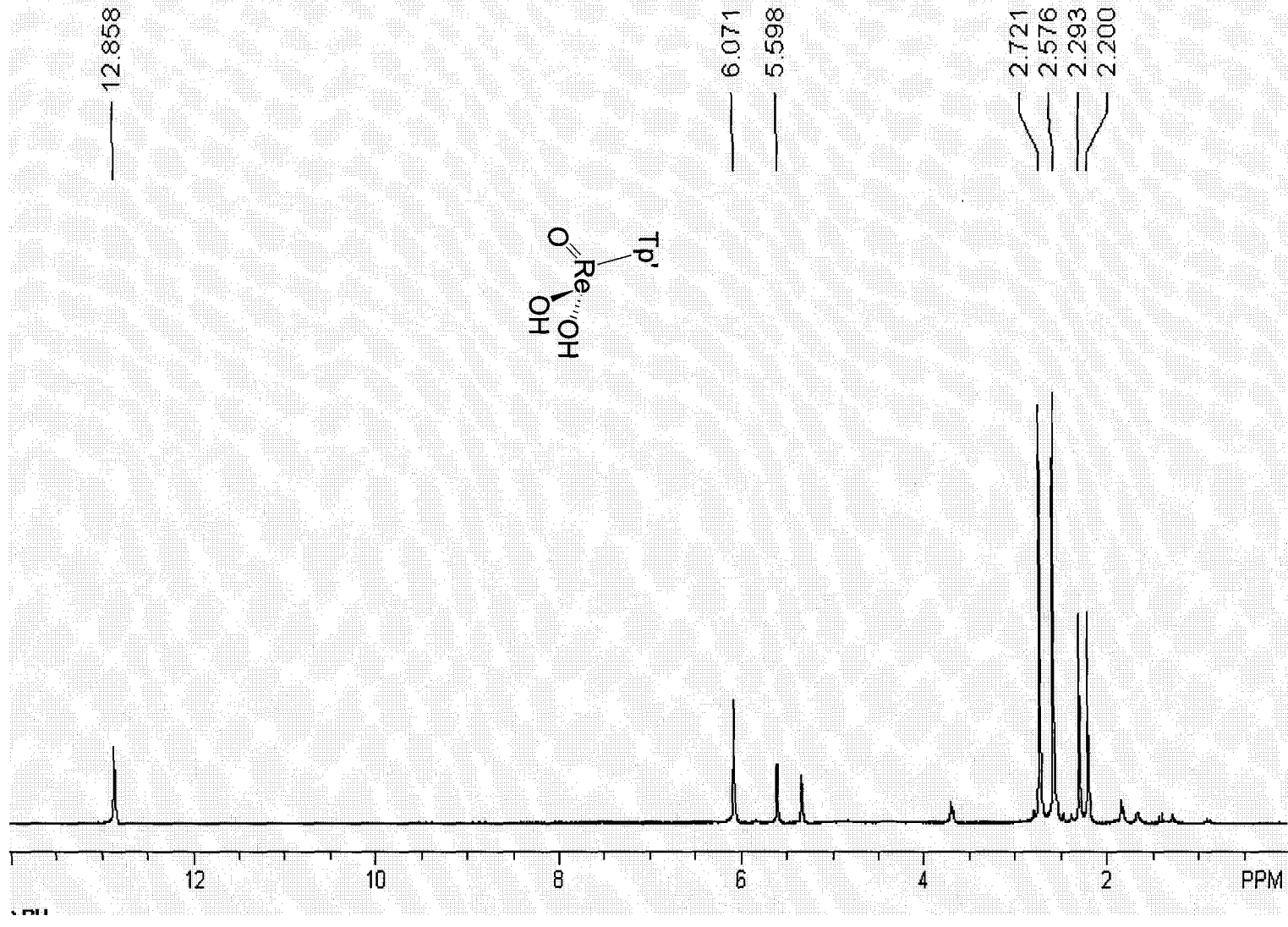
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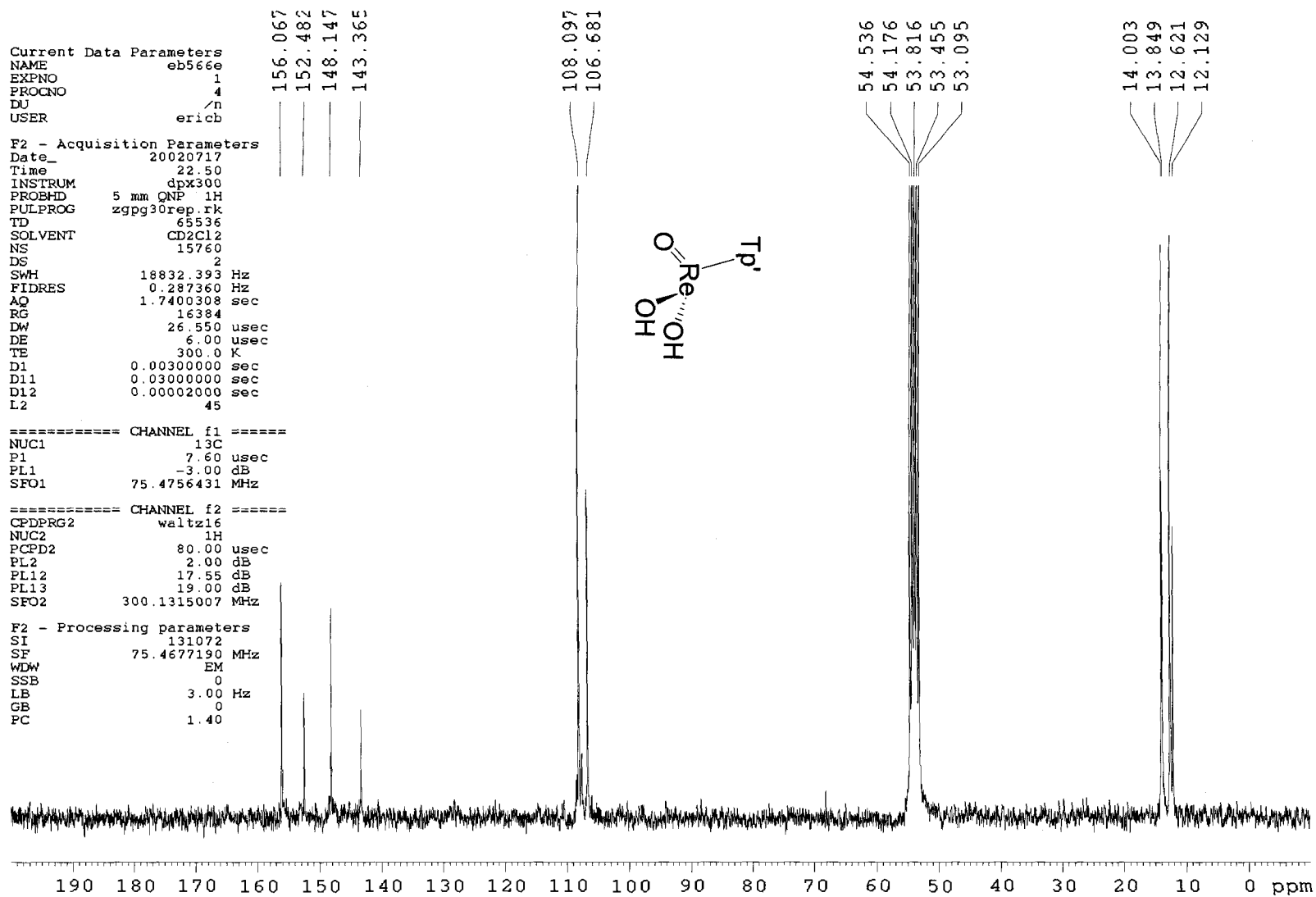
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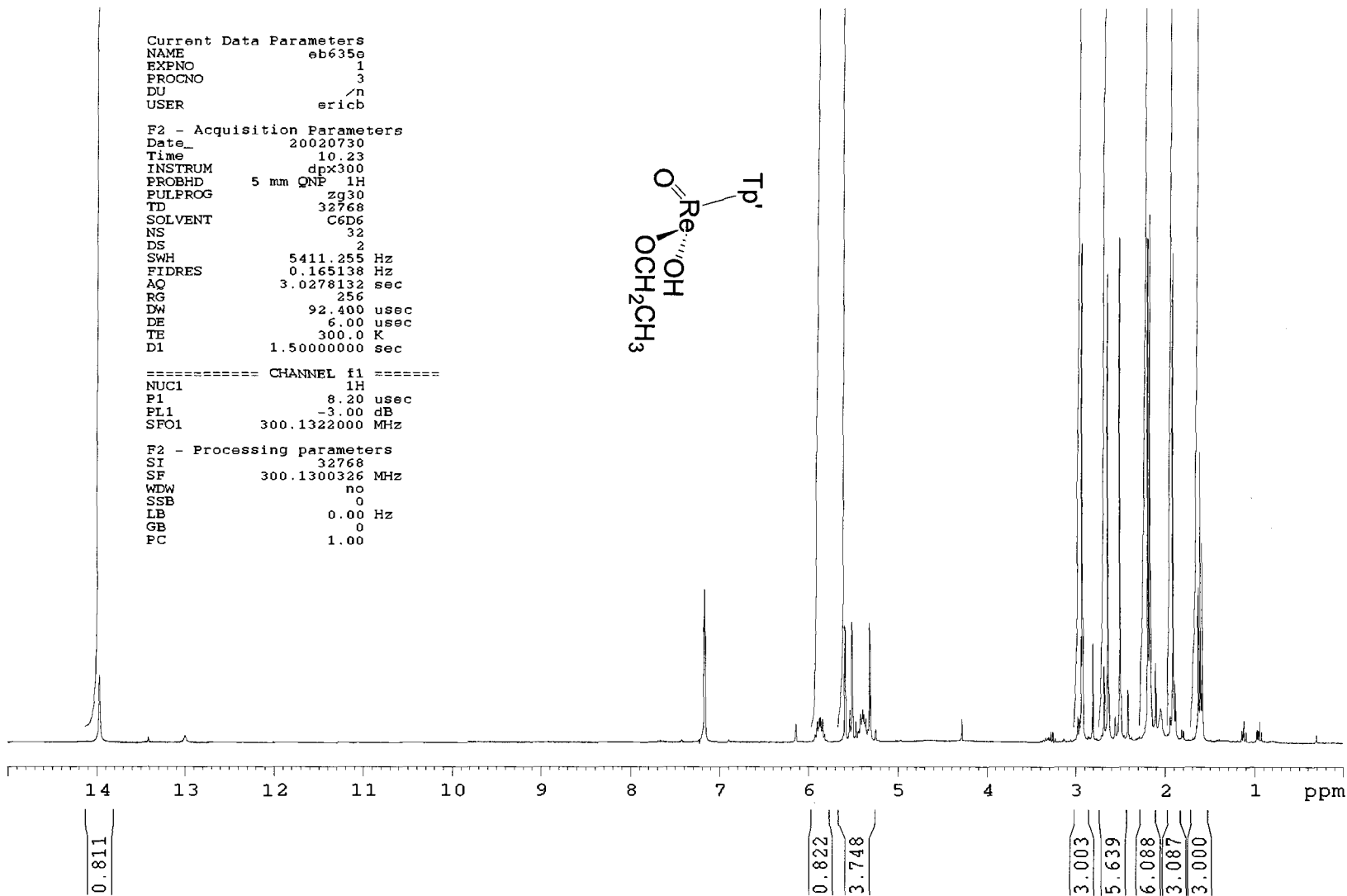
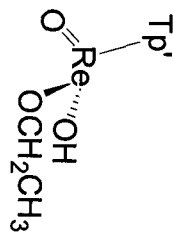


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 TE 300.0 K
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 WDW no
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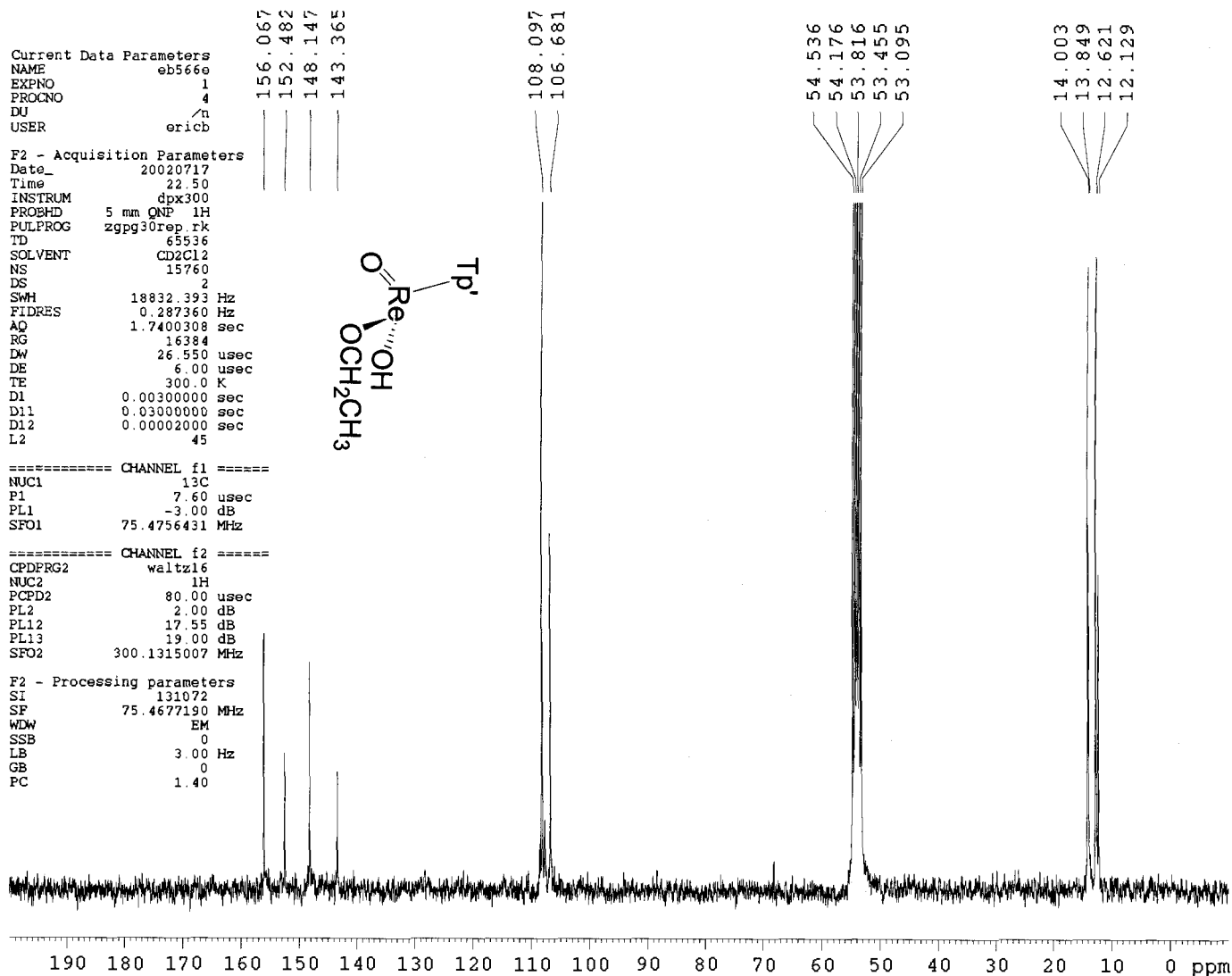
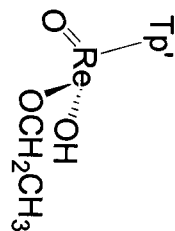
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 SOLVENT CD2Cl2
 NS 15760
 DS 2
 SWH 18832.393 Hz
 FIDRES 0.287360 Hz
 AQ 1.7400308 sec
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 DE 6.00 usec
 TE 300.0 K
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 D11 0.03000000 sec
 D12 0.00002000 sec
 L2 45

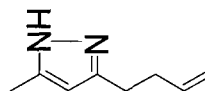
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 NUC2 1H
 PCPD2 80.00 usec
 PL2 2.00 dB
 PL12 17.55 dB
 PL13 19.00 dB
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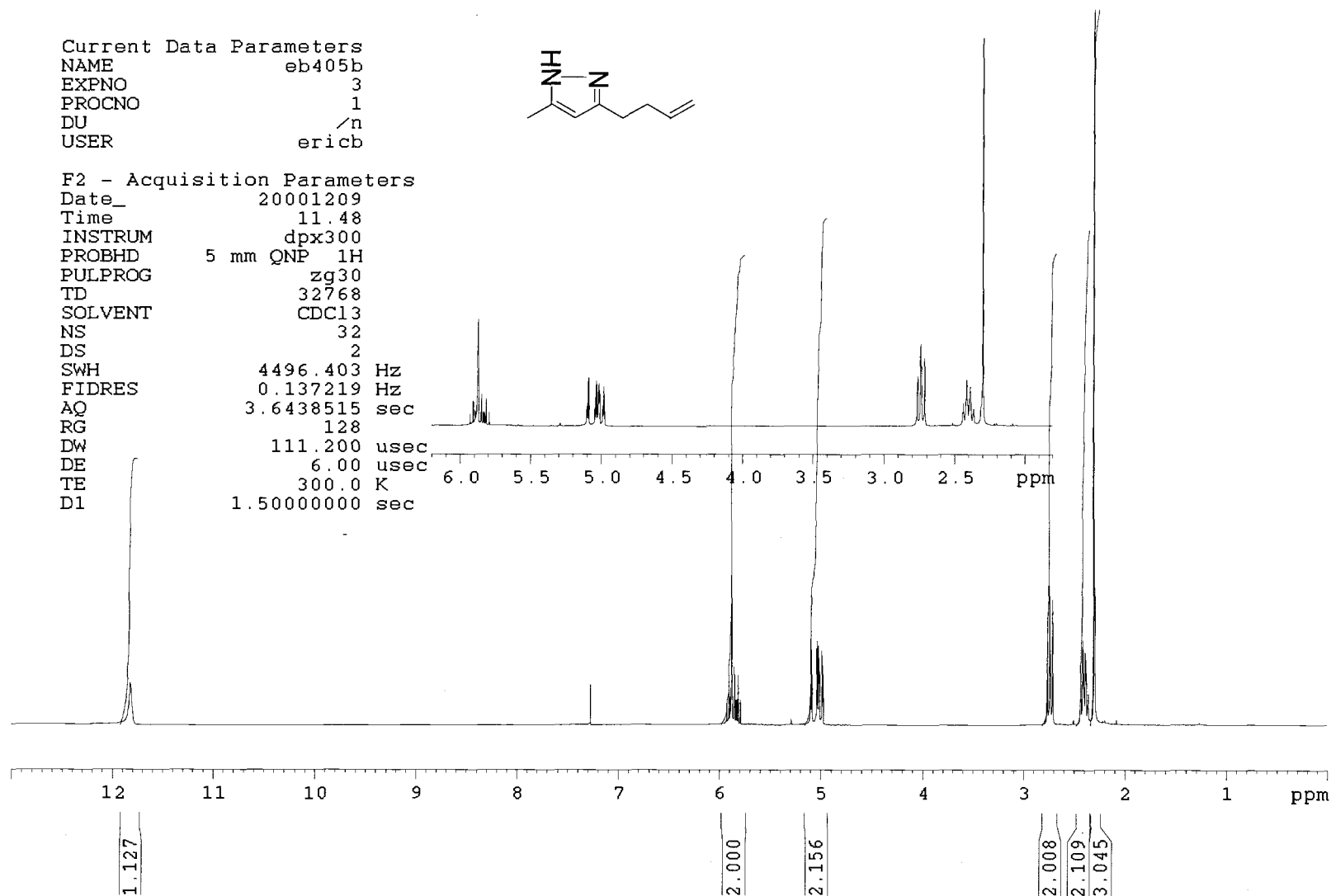


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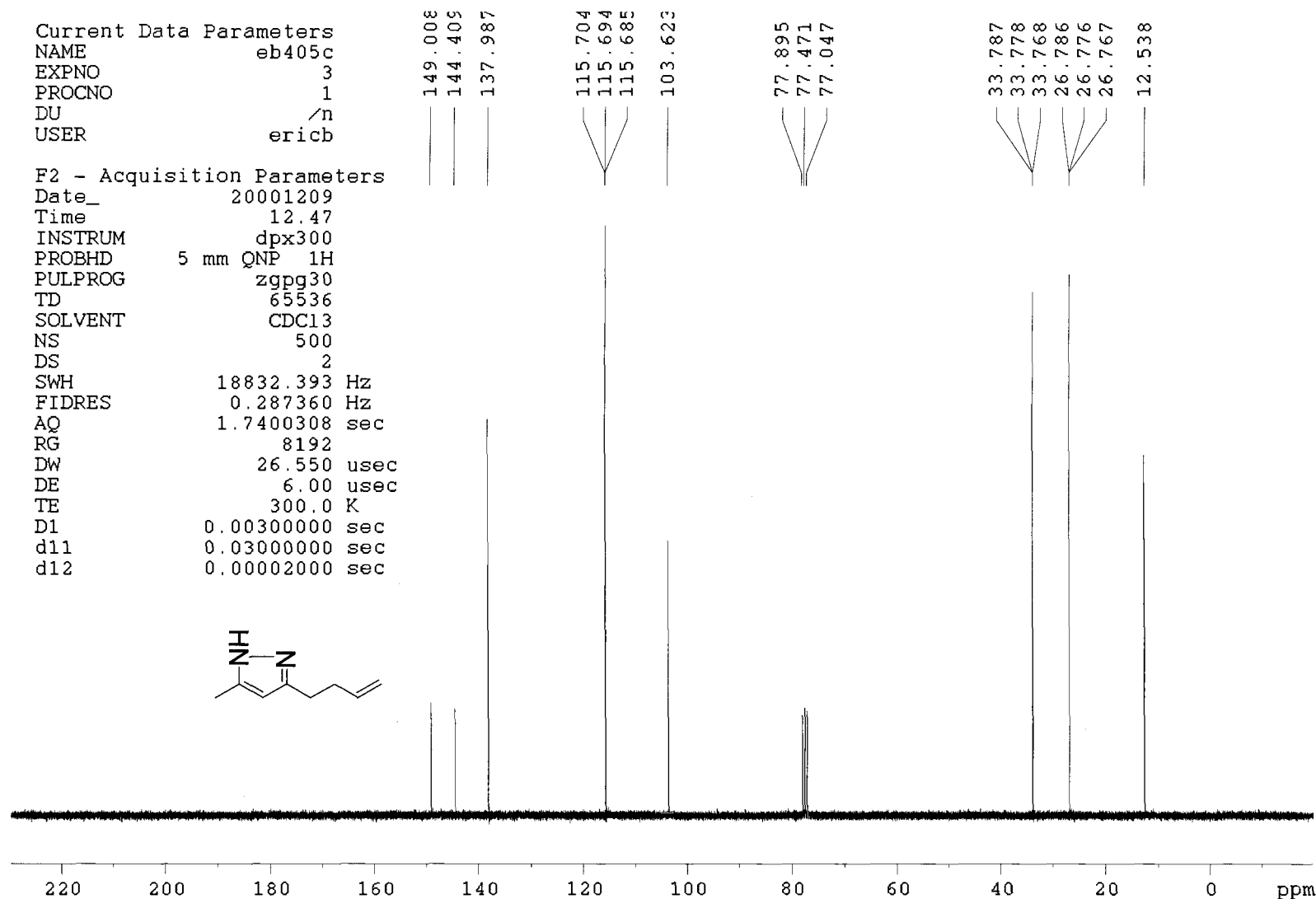
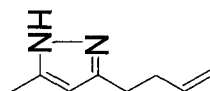
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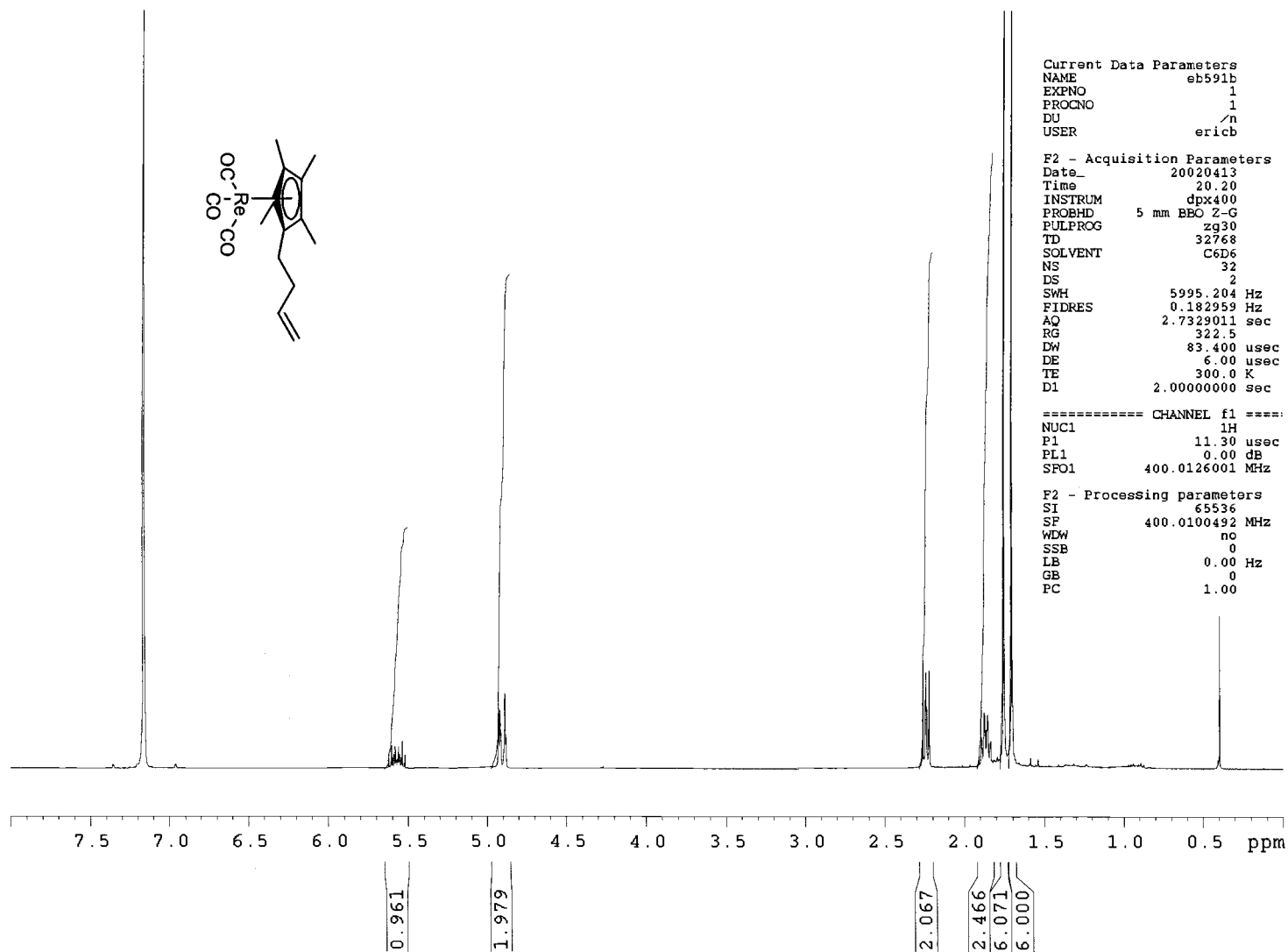


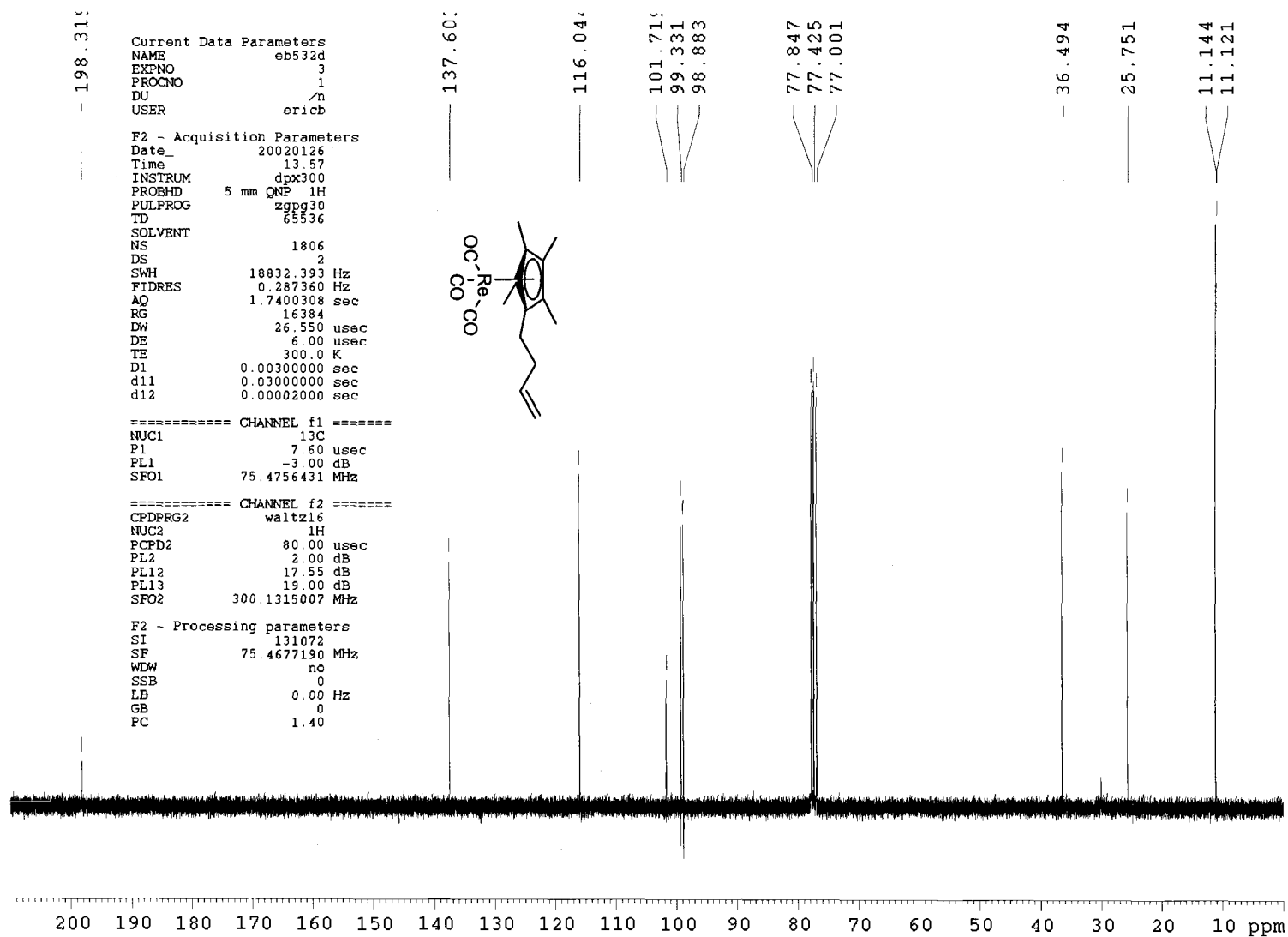
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 PROCNO 1
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 USER erichb

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 PULPROG zgpg30
 TD 65536
 SOLVENT CDC13
 NS 500
 DS 2
 SWH 18832.393 Hz
 FIDRES 0.287360 Hz
 AQ 1.7400308 sec
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 TE 300.0 K
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 d12 0.00002000 sec





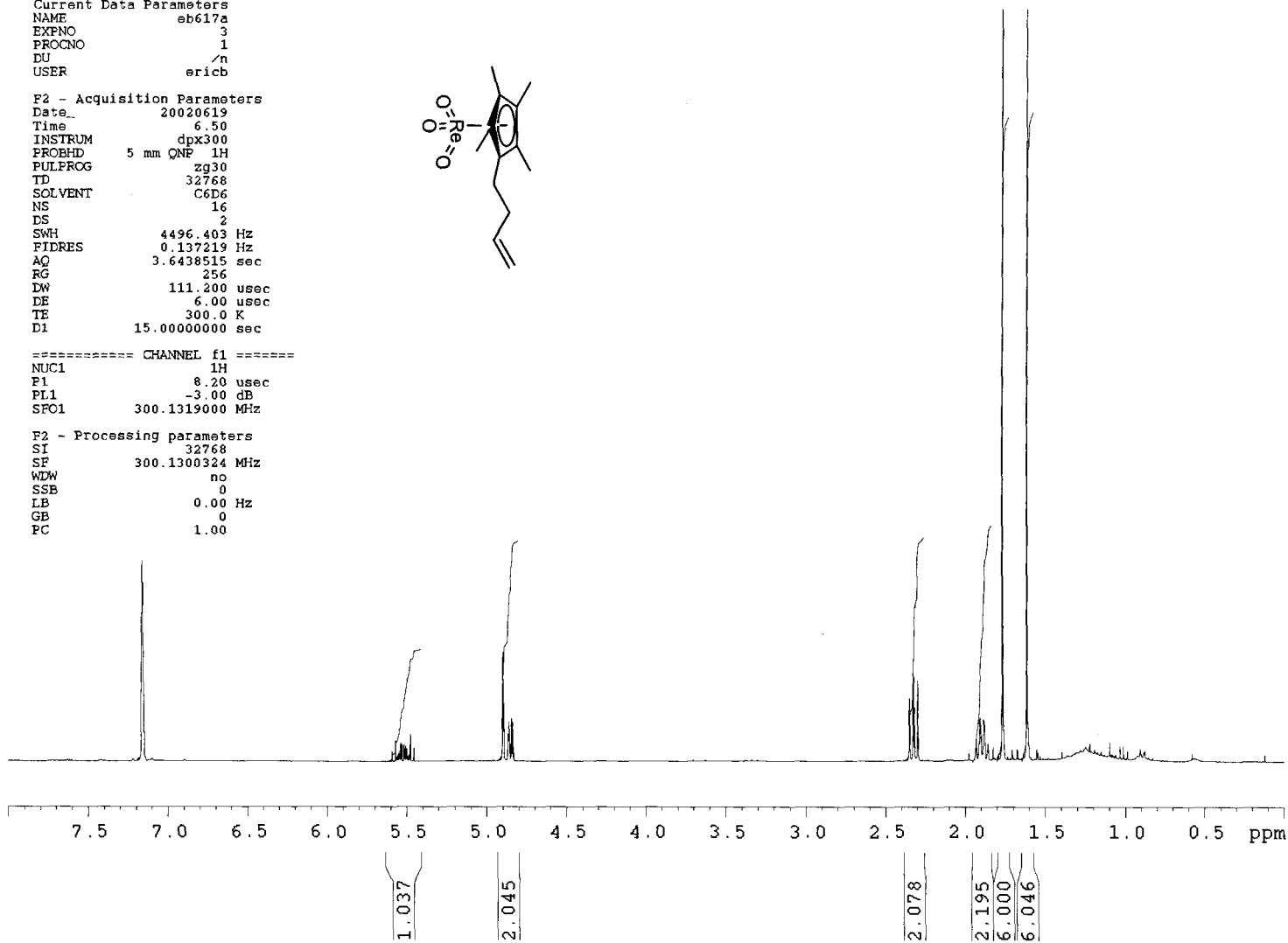


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 PULPROG zg30
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 DS 2
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 FIDRES 0.137219 Hz
 AQ 3.6438515 sec
 RG 256
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 DE 6.00 usec
 TE 300.0 K
 D1 15.0000000 sec

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 PL1 -3.00 dB
 SFO1 300.1319000 MHz

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 GB 0
 PC 1.00



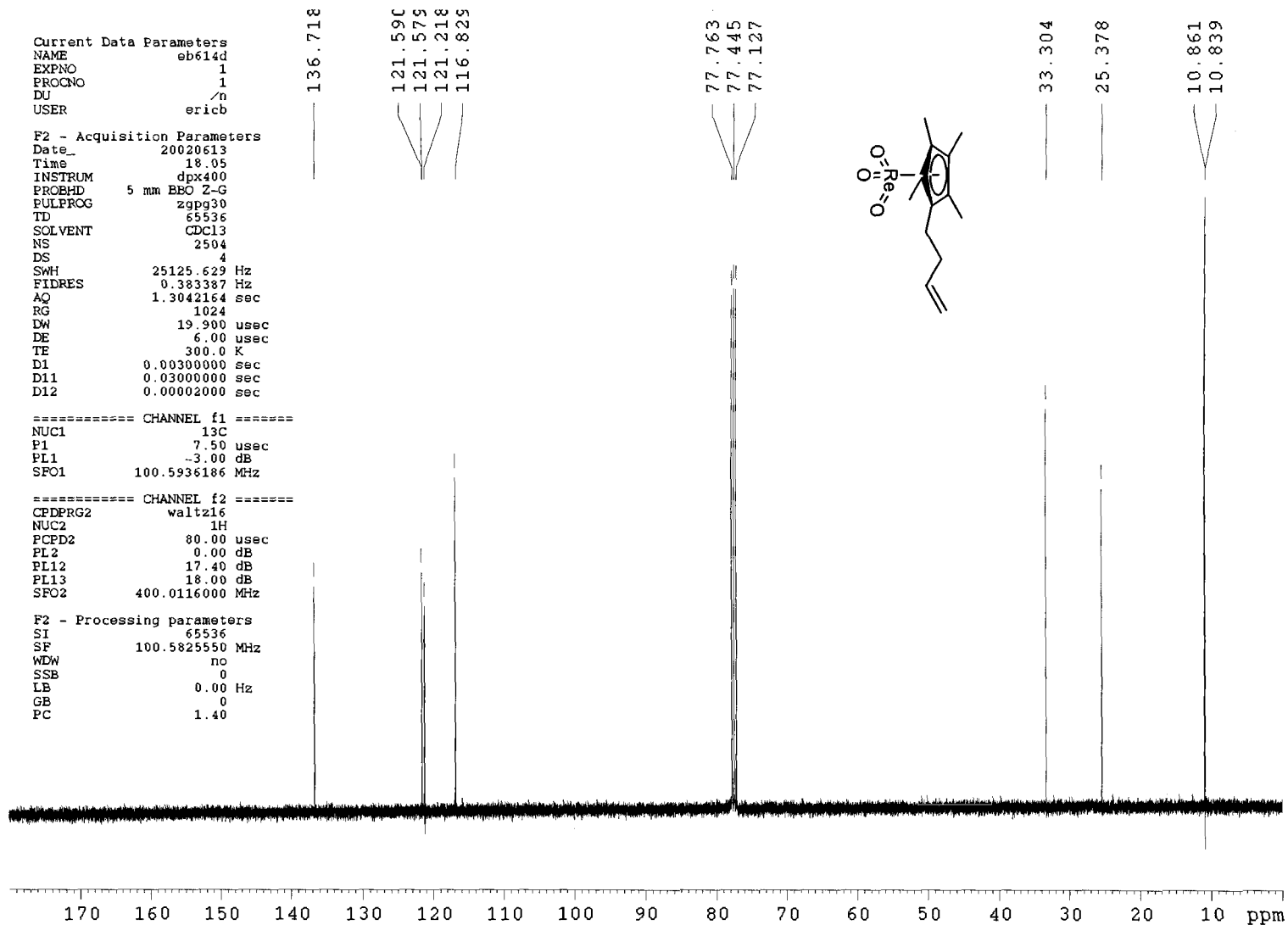
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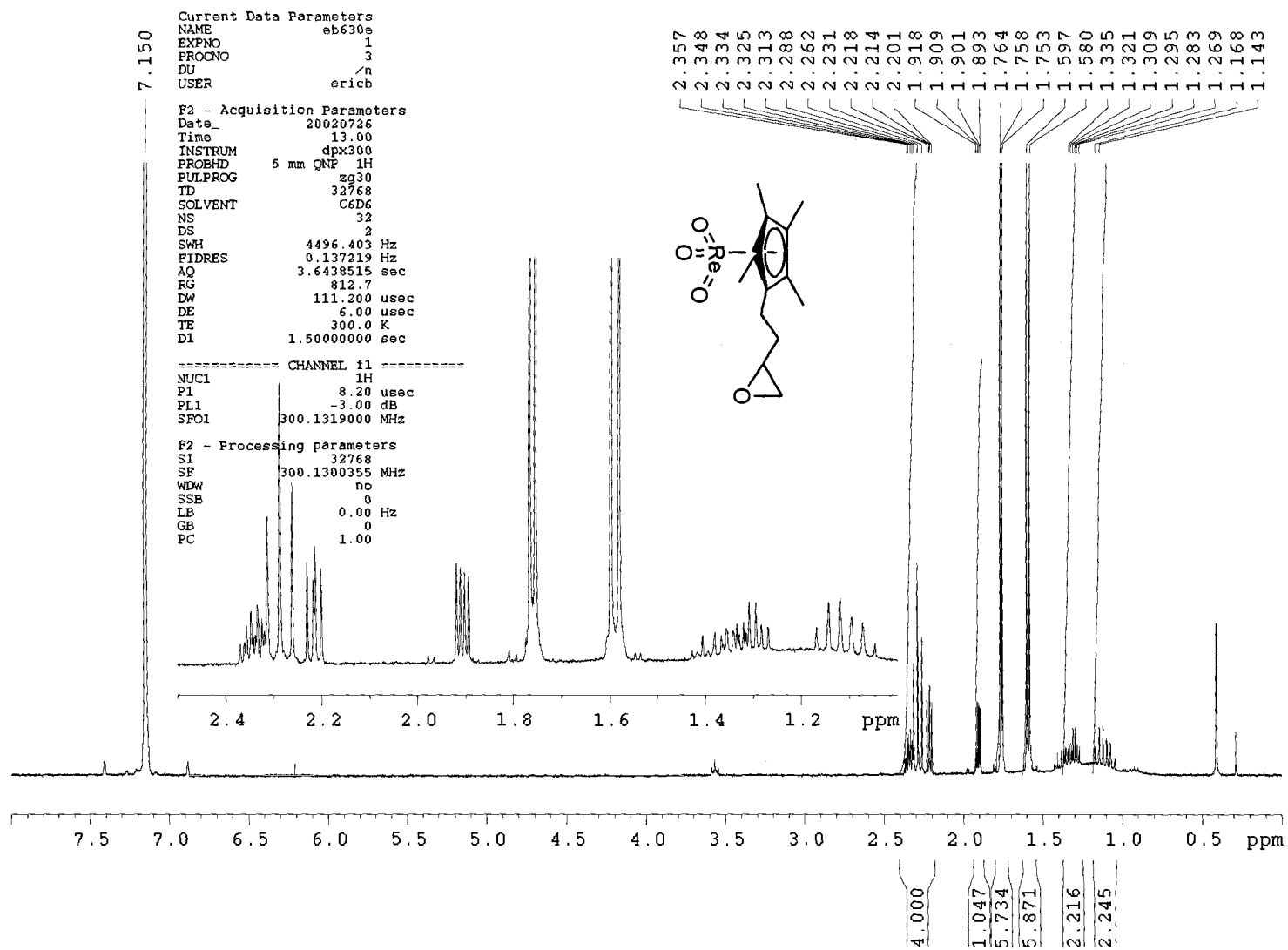
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 FIDRES 0.383387 Hz
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 DE 6.00 usec
 TE 300.0 K
 D1 0.00300000 sec
 D11 0.03000000 sec
 D12 0.00002000 sec

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 NUC1 13C
 P1 7.50 usec
 PL1 -3.00 dB
 SFO1 100.5936186 MHz

===== CHANNEL f2 =====
 CPDPRG2 waltz16
 NUC2 1H
 PCPD2 80.00 usec
 PL2 0.00 dB
 PL12 17.40 dB
 PL13 18.00 dB
 SFO2 400.0116000 MHz

F2 - Processing parameters
 SI 65536
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Current Data Parameters
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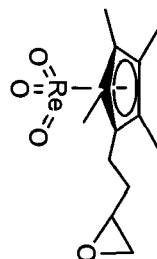
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 FIDRES 0.383387 Hz
 AQ 1.3042164 sec
 RG 2048
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 DE 6.00 usec
 TE 300.0 K
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 D11 0.03000000 sec
 D12 0.00002000 sec

===== CHANNEL f1 =====
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 P1 7.50 usec
 PL1 -3.00 dB
 SFO1 100.5936186 MHz

===== CHANNEL f2 =====
 CPDPRG2 waltz16
 NUC2 1H
 PCDP2 80.00 usec
 PL2 0.00 dB
 PL12 17.40 dB
 PL13 18.00 dB
 SFO2 400.0116000 MHz

F2 - Processing parameters
 SI 65536
 SF 100.5825550 MHz
 WDW no
 SSB 0
 LB 0.00 Hz

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 121.252
 121.193
 121.096



77.749
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 77.432
 77.114

51.764
 47.271

32.108

22.497

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 10.735

